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OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF SECONDARY - SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



The
Junior
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Today
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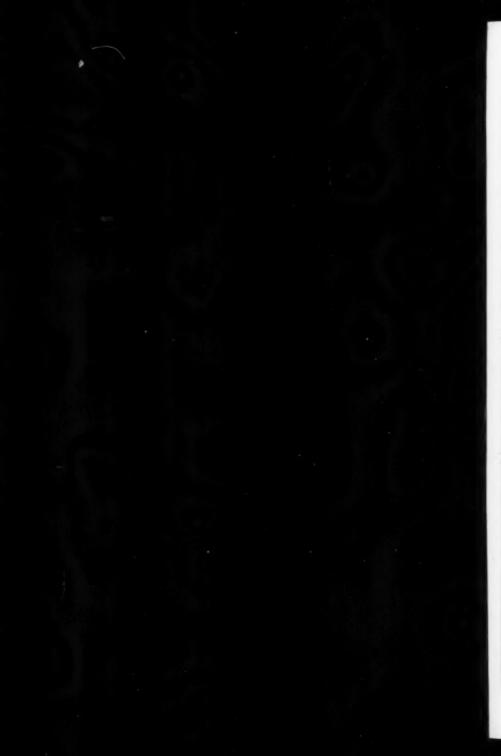
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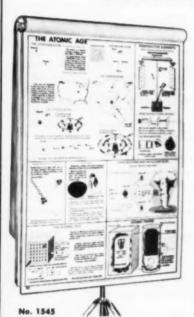




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(Adopted by the Executive Committee of NASSP on May 27, 1960)

Some questions have arisen about the relation of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals to the experimental projects which it has sponsored or may sponsor. As a result, the Executive Committee of NASSP makes the following statement to indicate its official position regarding present and future projects involving experimental approaches to secondary-school improvement.

The Association believes that experimentation is a necessary and easential activity for the improvement of secondary education. Officially, however, the Association neither endorses nor wishes to create the impression that it endorses the findings or specifications of any experimentation. The Association takes no position for or against the recommendations of experimental projects or programs unless specific action is taken by the Executive Committee of the Association.

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NOTICE OF PROPOSED CHANGE IN THE NASSP CONSTITUTION

DY ACTION of the Executive Committee on September 23, 1960, the following amendments to the NASSP Constitution are recommended. They will be voted on by the membership at the Business Meeting of the 45th Annual Convention of the NASSP, Tuesday morning, February 14, 1961, at Detroit, Michigan.

ARTICLE III-Membership

SECTION 2. All individuals shall be eligible to active membership who are engaged in (a) secondary-school administration and/or supervision; (b) teaching secondary education upon payment of the annual fee of \$15.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 3. Members of state organizations of secondaryschool principals shall be eligible to active membership in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals by the payment of the annual fee of \$10.00 through the state secretary or representative.

SECTION 4. All other persons interested in secondary education shall be eligible to associate membership upon payment of the annual fee of \$15.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 5. Institutional membership shall be open to all secondary schools and libraries and other educational institutions. The annual dues of \$25.00 shall be paid by the educational institution. If institutional membership is obtained through a state secondary-school principals' association, it shall be \$20.00 per year. The principal Association.

Current NASSP dues do not support the professional program of your National Association. Only by income from other sources has the Association been able to keep going. At the present time, the NASSP dues just about pay the publication costs of the NASSP BULLETIN alone.

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OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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Foreword

THE Association has, for a considerable number of years, regularly appointed a Committee on Junior High-School Education. These committees have a distinguished record of activities and publications. This issue of The Bulletin grows out of some of the recent activities of the Committee.

The present membership of the Committee on Junior High-School Education is as follows:

WILLIAM T. GRUHN, Professor of Education, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut; Chairman

CLAYTON E. BUELL, Assistant to the Associate Superintendent, Philadelphia Public Schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

JOHN V. MAIER, Principal, Wilson Junior High School, Muncie, Indiana

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CHARLES S. MORRIS, JR., Principal, Eureka Junior High School, Eureka, California

PAT WOOSLEY, Principal, Highland Park Junior High School, Dallas, Texas Ellsworth Tompkins. Executive Secretary, NASSP: ex officio

J. LLOYD TRUMP, Associate Secretary, NASSP; Secretary

Members of the Committee invite your suggestions for future activities and publications.

This is an especially propitious time to re-examine vigorously the present practices and proposals for change in junior high schools. Questioning the *status quo* need not reflect any lack of confidence in the present institutions. The essence of the current rapid growth in reorganized secondary schools is this diligence in seeking better ways of serving the needs of adolescents.

Recently published proposals for change in junior high schools advocated by Dr. James Conant and his associates represent one basis for discussion by professional educators and interested laymen. Some other bases for study are presented by several competent writers in Part I of this issue of The Bulletin.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, except by official action, does not advocate any one approach to the improvement of schools. Members are urged to study various proposals, provide leadership in local communities for discussion and experimentation, and otherwise take professional action toward better ways of doing things.

One of the basic questions facing organized education today is, who will provide the leadership for better schools? Will this leadership come

from laymen, or from isolated individuals, or from professional organizations, or whence?

Part II of this publication reports a study of the junior high-school grades in the six-year high school. The rapid growth of the six-year secondary school, plus the paucity of information about grades 7-8-9 in these schools, motivated the Committee on Junior High-School Education to undertake the inquiry. The data have implications for the administration and supervision of all junior high schools. Reprints of Part II are available.

Part III presents some interesting efforts to improve schools as reported by practitioners. The Committee invites others to tell what innovations are taking place elsewhere so additional articles can be published later.

Specific tasks for junior high-school principals are indicated in Part IV. In addition to articles about the principalship, two recent efforts to improve evaluation of junior high schools are reported.

This BULLETIN is replete with suggestions for alert secondary-school workers. What will be the nature of the junior high school tomorrow?

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PART I

Some Issues and Ideas

The Junior High School Today and Tomorrow

J. LLOYD TRUMP

THE junior high school, or intermediate school as it is called in some localities, represents one of the major contributions of the United States to organized education. New ideas usually generate controversy. However, providing educational opportunities for early adolescent youth in reorganized junior high schools has never been more vigorously followed than today. The future seems even more promising for the junior high school.

This article presents in summary form some generalizations regarding the junior high school today and observations about what it might be tomorrow. A few suggestions for additional reading to clarify and expand on some of these points is also provided.

SOME GENERALIZATIONS REGARDING THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TODAY

1. The movement to reorganize secondary education in the United States, which has given rise to such innovations as the separate junior high school, the junior college, the six-year secondary school, and plans such as 6-4-4 and 6-2-4, has had continuous, vigorous support for more than one half a century.

2. Although the reorganization movement was slowed down somewhat during the depression and World War II years, continuous increase has occurred in the number of reorganized schools and the numbers of students enrolled in them. Today slightly more than three fourths of all secondary schools are reorganized and more than four fifths of all secondary-school students are enrolled in reorganized schools.

3. Although many reasons have been advanced from time to time for reorganizing schools at the level of grades 7, 8, and 9, the soundest pur-

J. Lloyd Trump, Associate Secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, serves as Secretary of the Association's Committee on Junior High-School Education.

poses appear to be those having to do with meeting better the special

needs of early-adolescent youth.

4. Studies reveal the general superiority of the six-year secondary school for small communities and the 3-3 plan for larger ones. The six-year school should provide separate junior and senior high units under a coordinated administrative and supervisory pattern. Seldom is an equally effective program provided in the upper two grades of an eight-grade elementary school housed in a single building.

5. The junior high-school curriculum has moved in a direction away from extreme departmentalization on the one hand and, on the other,

from having all subjects taught by one teacher.

 Experimental approaches seeking better ways of doing things has characterized junior high-school education in the United States,

SOME OBSERVATIONS REGARDING THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TOMORROW

1. Three aspects of curriculum content for students should be highlighted as plans are made for more efficient and effective instruction: (a) understanding with skill what others have said and written in the various subject areas and communicating the students' own ideas; (b) learning essential knowledge in the subject fields to comprehend concepts, to function as a good citizen, and to permit further intellectual growth; and (c) developing intellectual inquiry to go beyond present knowledge.

(a) Skills—Many of the essential skills in the junior high school of the future will be taught through the use of programmed instruction devices (teaching machines and textbooks). Most of this teaching will be done on an individualized basis although some introductory and remedial

instruction will be in groups.

(b) Knowledge—Much instruction will be done with student groups of 100 or more. The most competent teachers available will be used to motivate students, present essential information, provide demonstrations and explanations, conduct evaluation, and do other things appropriate for large groups. At times this instruction will be in face-to-face groups and at other times by means of television, tapes, slides, and films. Learning Resource Centers will be available to students for reading, viewing, listening, and working on programmed instruction devices.

(c) Inquiry—Intellectual inquiry will be stimulated by student participation in classes with fifteen or fewer members. Also, extended periods of time will be spent by students in individual, or very small group, study in laboratories, libraries, shops, and other resource centers. Larger segments of uninterrupted time will be available for study in depth.

2. Exploration will be even more important in junior high-school education in the future. Flexible schedules will permit students to explore interests and competencies in depth rather than merely to sample interests as in present general education courses. Exploration of interests and competencies is difficult in the conventional junior high school with

standard-length class periods and subject matter organized for instruction purposes on a five-day-a-week basis. Students should be able to work for extended periods of time in laboratories, shops, libraries, and other resource centers in and outside the school.

3. Distinctions between classroom activities and extraclass activities, as well as between in-school activities and out-of-school activities, will be lessened in the junior high school of the future. The so-called extraclass activities are very important in helping to meet the specialized needs of early-adolescent youth. School regulations and procedures, however, have often provided quite separate policies for extraclass activities. The lengthened school day, week, and year, along with greater use of community resources, will tend to bring about a greater integration of extraclass and out-of-school activities with what is now called the regular curricular program of the school.

4. Teachers will have time to raise their professional standards. Junior high-school teachers should not be scheduled with groups of students more than fifteen hours per week. This would provide time for such professional activities as preparing instructional materials, keeping up-to-date, conferring with colleagues, improving evaluation, working with individual students, and performing other truly professional services.

This reduction in scheduled time of teachers with groups will be logistically possible because clerks and other assistants will be employed to perform many non-professional and sub-professional tasks now done by teachers. Also, teaching machines and other programmed instruction devices will be used by students to teach themselves many things which now require the personal attention of teachers. In the third place, teachers will save time by avoiding needless repetition of teaching some materials to unnecessarily small groups of students.

5. Special competencies of teachers will be used better in the junior high school of tomorrow. The self-contained classroom concept will be replaced in part by teaching teams. Teachers will instruct those phases of subjects for which they are best suited. Guidance and library personnel will also work as parts of teaching teams, thus minimizing the dichotomy which has often existed in the conventional school between teachers and such other persons as those mentioned.

Individual differences among teachers will be recognized in scheduling them for different kinds of activities, as well as in the number of hours per week they are scheduled with different sized groups. For example, teachers most able to work with very small groups of students will be scheduled to work with groups of that size, and those teachers able to instruct larger-than-usual groups will be given those assignments.

6. Teachers will have more personal contacts with students in the junior high school tomorrow. Many contacts between teachers and students will be in classes of fifteen, or in conferences with students engaged in independent, individual study. Small classes and individual work with students will be logistically possible because some instruction will be done

in large groups and other learning will take place on teaching machines and programmed instruction devices. The conventional class with twenty-five to thirty-five students, which today brings heavy teaching loads and makes personal contacts with students difficult, will find little place in the junior high school tomorrow.

- 7. The use of instruction assistants, general aides, and clerks will make possible a professional relationship between students and teachers very difficult to achieve in today's school. *Instruction assistants* are carefully selected persons, competent in a subject area, assigned to perform some supervision of students engaged in independent study and to evaluate some phases of student work. *General aides* are employed to perform a number of policing and routine services around the school. *Clerks* can assume a variety of clerical duties. Teachers thus freed from trivial concerns will see students at times when it really matters to the students and to their professional teachers.
- 8. Teachers will be capitalized better in the junior high school tomorrow. Teaching today represents one of the most under-capitalized professions. Instructional tools typically are inadequately provided, or are of the same type as available for decades. Instructional Materials Centers will be provided in the junior high school tomorrow so teachers will have a place to record materials on tapes; make transparencies, slides, and other visual materials; and prepare other aids to instruction. The room will provide specialists to help make graphics, clerks to assist, and other facilities that will enable teachers to become more professionally competent. Individual and group work spaces for teachers will be available. The advances provided by modern technology will be at the disposal of teachers.

Superior monetary rewards will be provided for teachers with special skills. Such rewards based on special assignments will be above those provided in the basic salary policies of the school. Teachers will be able to earn such high salaries as classroom teachers that they will not be tempted to leave the classroom to become supervisors or administrators in order to make more money.

9. Professional decisions will replace clerical decisions in the junior high school tomorrow. Student progress in the junior high school today is determined mainly by adding and averaging. The school has made a fetish out of uniformity in such matters as teacher and pupil loads, length of periods, organization of subject content, class schedules, bases for graduation, school leaving dates, and the like.

The school of the future will collect much information about its students, more even than today. However, decisions based on these facts will be professional decisions, rather than mere clerical decisions. Guidance counselors and other qualified persons will work closely with teachers in making professional decisions about students. Guidance services will be an integral part of teaching services.

10. Individual needs of students will be better served in the junior high school tomorrow. Although many efforts are made in junior high schools today to serve individual differences among students, the effectiveness of these procedures has been greatly inhibited by standard policies on class size, time, the spaces where instruction takes place, and the utilization of the staff. Teaching machines and other programmed instruction devices will individualize some instruction more than now.

The amount of "togetherness" in today's school will be reduced in the school of tomorrow. Students will be scheduled in groups fewer hours per week so they will be able to work as individuals in places and on subjects where they have special interests, competence, and need. Professional decisions will govern the amounts of time and the places where students work.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TRANSITION.

The junior high school tomorrow can become a reality if experimental approaches to it are undertaken. Too little time, energy, and money are devoted to research in the junior high school today in spite of the fact that this segment of education has probably been more experimental minded than any other.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals has placed at the disposal of its members a number of aids for principals and others interested in discussing new approaches. Two special publications are the following:

Images of the Future—A New Approach to the Secondary School New Directions to Quality Education—The Secondary School Tomorrow

Each of the foregoing publications is available without charge from the NASSP office. The Association has also produced a one-hour film entitled, And No Bells Ring, which describes some of the ideas suggested for the junior high school tomorrow. The film may be scheduled for use through the NASSP office upon payment of a \$3.00 handling charge.

Suggestions for improving junior high schools are also presented regularly in the issues of the NASSP Bulletin, in special publications of the Junior High-School Education Committee, and in the discussion groups and general sessions of the annual convention of the Association. Regional and state conferences of junior high-school principals are scheduled periodically.

The junior high school today will inevitably become the junior high school tomorrow. The questions are, what will be the nature of the school of tomorrow, and who will determine the changes that are made? That is the real challenge to junior high-school leadership.

Reaffirming the Role of the Junior High School in the American School System

WILLIAM T. GRUHN

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EARLY PURPOSES

At the turn of the century, educators and parents were reasonably well satisfied with the character of the educational program in the lower and middle elementary grades and in the high school. They were concerned, however, with the program of education in the upper grades of the elementary school. It was this concern for the program in the upper elementary grades which initiated two decades of intensive study and discussion of the grade organization and program of the American school system, and which culminated in the establishment of the first junior high schools.

An excellent historical record of the thinking of educators concerning the program of upper elementary education is provided by the numerous committee reports on grade reorganization which were presented beginning with the Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary-School Studies in 1893. The reports of the committees on grade reorganization, and the speeches and writings of leading educators on the subject, all pointed to the same conclusion; namely, that the program of education in the upper elementary grades was not suited to the educational needs, interests, and abilities of boys and girls in those grades. It was, therefore, to develop a more adequate educational program for boys and girls in grades 7, 8, and 9 that the first junior high schools were established.

A further examination of the early literature on the reorganization of the American school system reveals a concern by educators about the "gap" that existed at that time between the elementary and the secondary schools. There was a sharp distinction early in the present century between the subjects that were taught in the elementary school and those of the secondary school. The elementary school was concerned primarily with teaching the fundamental skills, while the secondary school taught studies that were preparatory for admission to college. Likewise, the administrative organization of the elementary school was sharply different from that of the secondary school. As more and more youth who were not college bound began to continue their education beyond the elementary school, it became increasingly apparent that there should be a

William T. Gruhn is Professor of Education, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut; *Chairman* of the NASSP Committee on Junior High-School Education.

smoother transition from grade to grade and school to school in the American school system. Providing a more satisfactory transition from the program of the elementary to that of the secondary school became, therefore, a second major purpose of the early junior high school.

These, then, were the purposes for which the early junior high schools were established: (1) to provide an educational program which was suited to the needs, interests, and abilities of boys and girls during early adolescence—pupils in grades 7, 8, and 9; and (2) to provide a satisfactory transition from the program of elementary to that of secondary education. Any examination of the role of the junior high school, therefore, must be concerned with answers to these questions: (1) What do we know about the nature of early adolescents which may have implications for the educational program in grades 7, 8, and 9; and (2) What are the responsibilities of the junior high school in providing a satisfactory transition from the program of the middle elementary to that of the upper secondary-school grades?

NATURE OF EARLY ADOLESCENTS

Psychologists seem agreed that the predominant characteristic of early adolescents is that at no other age are children so different from each other. These differences are particularly evident when one studies the various ages at which individual children mature. In each of the junior high-school grades, one finds boys and girls who are at greatly different levels of maturity—physical, psychological, physiological, social, and intellectual. Furthermore, the earlier maturation of girls as compared with boys becomes especially pronounced during the early adolescent years.

By the time children reach early adolescence, they are also greatly different from each other in their educational attainments. The range in the reading levels of children is wider than ever before; they have many different avocational and recreational interests; and they differ greatly in their intellectual interests and achievements. For instance, in grades 7 and 8 some pupils have progressed sufficiently in arithmetic to be ready for more advanced mathematics; some should begin a foreign language before the ninth grade; others are ready in grades 7, 8, and 9 for study in science, social studies, and other subjects at levels well above those ordinarily considered appropriate for these grades. Pupils in these grades begin to reveal special talents in music, art, sports, dramatics, and various creative activities. The junior high school should concern itself with these many different intellectual, avocational, and cultural interests and talents of early adolescents.

Although individual differences are the predominant characteristic of early adolescents, there are several others which are also of concern to educators. The early adolescent years are a period of change in the social relationships among children. In the middle elementary grades, for

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instance, there is little interest, especially by boys, in social activities which emphasize boy-girl relationships. Many boys, in fact, prefer to associate only with those of their own sex. The activities in the elementary-school years, therefore, emphasize group rather than individual boy-girl relationships.

But for most children interest in boy-girl relationships has changed considerably by the time they enter the senior high school. By then the social activities not only include both boys and girls, but the focus of their social life also centers in dating. Furthermore, the social activities of youth in the senior high school become increasingly more sophisticated with respect to the hours they keep, the places they go, and the things they do. The importance of the automobile to the dating activities of youth has further complicated their social life. With the minimum legal driving age at 16 in most states, this problem centers largely in the senior high-school years.

Most children make the transition from group to paired boy-girl relationships in the junior high-school years. Therefore, in the junior high school, attention should be given to problems of dating and to preparation for the sophisticated social activities of the senior high-school years.

During early adolescent years, the sphere of the child's social group also extends itself considerably. In the middle elementary grades, children usually belong to neighborhood groups which do not take them far from home. By the time they reach the senior high school several years later, however, the "crowd" with which they associate may extend far into the community, and occasionally into other communities as well. Again, it is particularly in the junior high-school years that the sphere of a child's social activities begins to extend considerably. It is in these grades, therefore, that there should be learning activities to prepare the child for participation in a larger social group.

During early adolescence, children also begin to break away from close control by parents and teachers. Though they may not be ready for it, early adolescents have a growing desire for independence and for self-responsibility for their actions. This growth in independence of action, like that of other characteristics, is a gradual rather than an abrupt one. Here again the educational program of the junior high school becomes important. Pupils need to engage in many activities—clubs, student council, assemblies—in which they have an opportunity for considerable independent thought and action. It is through activities such as these, planned with the help of competent teachers, that pupils gain experience in assuming increasing responsibility for their own actions and conduct.

Early adolescence is also a period of rapid physical change for boys and girls. After the summer vacation, some boys return to school inches taller, much heavier, and with a voice that has changed from a sweet soprano to a husky baritone. Among the girls, physical growth is usually not so rapid, but they too may change much in physical structure and

appearance during these years. These physical changes, like other changes in early adolescence, come at different ages and in different ways for different children. Many of these changes are concentrated, however, in the junior high-school years.

The physical changes of youth present problems that have implications for the educational program of the junior high school. Posture problems need attention. The desire for participation in competitive activities presents the need for a sports program. There are problems of nutrition, cleanliness, appearance, and personal care which need the attention of the school as well as the home. It is the responsibility of the junior high school to help boys and girls with the physical changes they encounter in these years.

In summary, then, these are some of the concerns of educators as they plan an educational program to meet the needs of boys and girls during early adolescence:

 They need to provide a school organization and an educational program which make provision for the great differences one finds among individual children at this age.

They need to help children prepare for the changing social relationships between boys and girls and for participation in social activities that become increasingly sophisticated.

They need to get pupils ready to participate in social groups that are larger and that extend increasingly beyond the immediate neighborhood into the community.

They need to prepare children for greater independence and for selfresponsibility for their conduct and actions.

They need to help children meet the physical changes that take place during early adolescence.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR EFFECTIVE TRANSITION

The responsibility of the junior high school for providing a satisfactory transition from the elementary to the secondary school derives from the unique place it holds in the grade organization of the total school system. The junior high school follows the early and middle elementary grades, where much emphasis is given to teaching basic skills and knowledge. With some adaptation for individual differences, the content, activities, and materials of instruction in the elementary school are much the same for all pupils. The educational goals toward which pupils strive in the elementary school are likewise common to all.

Beyond the junior high school is the senior high school which, with its variety of curricula and courses, is far different from the elementary school. In the senior high school there is usually much differentiation in the total program of the school with offerings of elective courses and curricula. Pupils in the senior high school are expected to define their individual educational and vocational goals and to plan a program of courses and activities to achieve those goals. Furthermore, the emphasis

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on the total growth of the child in the elementary school increasingly gives way in the senior high school to concern for growth in subject matter, for college admission, and for vocational preparation. This "inbetween" position which it holds in the total school program is important in defining the role of the junior high school.

The junior high school must recognize that pupils have made much growth in basic skills and knowledge by the time they complete the middle elementary grades. By grade seven, most pupils are ready for a level of study in some subjects which requires much more background in those subjects than is possessed by the typical elementary-school teacher. For instance, at the junior high-school level, such subjects as science, music, art, industrial arts, and homemaking demand considerable background for the teacher. Certainly this is true if the instruction in these subjects is at a level that is challenging to pupils who have already had six or more years of elementary education. Furthermore, by grades 7 and 8, some of the more able pupils should be ready for subjects which go beyond the traditional fundamentals—subjects that we have in the past often considered secondary in character. These subjects may include foreign languages, mathematics, the sciences, and others.

In the junior high school, pupils are also approaching the time when they need to make some decisions concerning their educational activities in the senior high school and beyond. Some pupils need to decide whether or not they should continue in school beyond the compulsory attendance age. For most pupils, however, continuation in school is taken for granted. These pupils, therefore, must plan the curriculum and courses they will take in the senior high school and the pupil activities in which they should engage there. Furthermore, there is much pressure on pupils today to make plans as early as the junior high-school years for education beyond the senior high school. With the rapidly growing college enrollments, the pressure for early decisions concerning post-secondary education undoubtedly will continue to increase.

The choices and decisions concerning further education present a tremendous responsibility for the junior high school. It means that in grades 7, 8, and 9 youth need to have many exploratory experiences which may serve as background for making intelligent decisions. There needs to be guidance and counseling as they make their plans for secondary and post-secondary education. Finally, there needs to be much follow-up through the junior high school and beyond to assist pupils as they review, modify, and extend these plans and decisions.

Finally, the junior high school carries a particular responsibility because it is in these grades that a transition is made from the program of the elementary to that of the secondary school. There is the transition from pupil contact with one teacher in the elementary school to multi-teacher contacts in the secondary school; from the security of the self-contained classroom to the more impersonal atmosphere of the secondary school;

from close supervision of one's school work by one teacher to more independent study and self-responsibility for one's progress; from a single curriculum for all pupils to a differentiated curriculum with opportunities for elective courses and activities; and from a school whose administrative organization is quite simple to one with a complex organization of schedules, reports, activities, and regulations.

In the curriculum itself there are likewise problems in the transition from grade to grade and school to school. There needs to be a philosophy of education that is consistent from the elementary through the secondary school. The changes in subject matter and methods of teaching need to be smooth and consistent from grade to grade. The introduction of foreign languages, advanced mathematics, and science below the ninth grade creates problems of articulation in the curriculum. Accelerated or enriched programs for the more able pupils in the elementary and junior high-school grades likewise present problems in making a satisfactory transition in the curriculum from school to school. The "in-between" position of the junior high school places upon it special responsibilities for making the transition from the elementary to the secondary school a satisfactory one.

The unique position which the junior high school holds in the grade structure of our school system is, therefore, a major factor in determining the role of the junior high school. In achieving its role to provide adequately for the transition from the program of elementary to that of secondary education, the junior high school must recognize that:

1. Pupils are ready by grade seven for a level of study in some subjects which requires teachers with more thorough preparation in those subjects than is ordinarily possible for teachers who are responsible for all subjects in a grade.

Pupils should become ready in the junior high school through exploratory experiences and guidance for making plans and decisions concerning further education in the senior high school and in post-secondary schools.

3. Pupils should be assisted with the transition which they must make from the security, the organization, and the program of the lower and middle elementary grades to the more complex organization, curriculum, and activities of the upper secondary school.

CONCLUSION

The junior high school is, therefore, today, as it was fifty years ago, concerned with providing a program of education for pupils of a particular age group—those in the early adolescent years; furthermore, it is concerned with certain responsibilities for making a satisfactory transition from the program of the elementary to that of the secondary school. Changes have taken place in the past fifty years, it is true, which affect the implementation of these purposes of the junior high schools. For instance, we know more today about the nature of early adolescents; children are better prepared than in the past as they come through the

program of the elementary school; boys and girls tend to remain in school much longer, most of them continuing to graduation from the senior high school; the social activities of youth have become increasingly sophisticated; and recently there have been demands for increased emphasis on certain subjects—mathematics, science, and foreign languages.

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The essential role of the junior high school, however, continues to be as follows: (1) to provide a program of education that is suited to the needs, interests, and abilities of boys and girls during early adolescence; and (2) to provide a satisfactory transition from the program of the early and middle elementary grades to that of the upper secondary school. It is with the implementation of this role that junior high-school educators must concern themselves in the years ahead.

The Conant Report on Junior High Schools

THOMAS H. BRIGGS

THOMAS JEFFERSON desired to be remembered as the Father of the University of Virginia. Dr. James Bryant Conant, eminent as chemist, president of Harvard University, and diplomat, deserves to be known and honored for his service to public education. He was one of the able members of the NEA Education Policies Commission nearly a generation ago, and, since his retirement as ambassador to West Germany, he has made two notable studies of American secondary education.

The latter, reported in Recommendations for Education in the Junior High School Years, is addressed "to school board members and others interested in public education." It is an expression of Dr. Conant's opinions after visiting 237 schools in 90 systems in 23 states, and conferring with a large number of school administrators and teachers.

Instead of reporting the number of schools organized in different ways and offering such and such courses, with medians and probable errors, as is customary with so many studies by educators—interesting information but not significant as to what schools ought to be and do—Dr. Conant makes 14 recommendations and offers his personal opinion on a number of topics like homogeneous grouping, skipping grades, interscholastic athletics and marching bands, commencements and diplomas, the size of schools, desirable teaching loads, and the functions of school boards.

Dr. Conant did not use a scientific method in gathering his data; indeed that would have been impossible, even with the aid of three assistants, when visiting so many schools and considering so many matters. Instead, he bases his recommendations and comments on the impressions made by his observations and on what school people told him—all evaluated by his own common-sense judgment.

It is not difficult to guess with a considerable degree of certainty which recommendations are based on a general concurrence of opinion, and which are an expression of Dr. Conant's own convictions. Approval by readers of most of the recommendations because they are expressions of general professional ideals and, to a large extent, of practice should not prevent a critical consideration of each and every one of them. The prestige of the author does not make any recommendation authoritative.

Dr. Thomas H. Briggs is Emeritus Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. He is now Chairman of the Board of the Council for the Advancement of Secondary Education. Dr. Briggs is the last surviver of the group that organized the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

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Dr. Conant says that his conclusions came from observing the best practices in good schools. But, as Josiah Reyce emphasized many years ago, those adjectives have no meaning until qualified by a directive phrasegood for what? The weakness of Dr. Conant's reports is that nowhere does he state an educational philosophy, a philosophy that justifies his conclusions.

FUNCTIONS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

It is well known that the establishment of many so-called junior high schools was caused by local conditions, such as the availability of a building or by a desire to retain pupils longer in school. The latter problem no longer is a serious one, for increasingly young people persist in schools longer and longer. But a generation ago many were convinced that there were sound and compelling educational reasons for a special school for pubescents. In the early days I proposed the following purposes for the new type school, remembered by my students by the mnemonic CARES. It should:

1. Continue basic education so far as necessary for mastery by each individual. (Such education, especially in reading, arithmetic, civic responsibilities, and social relations, not only is personally useful but is also socially integrating in a democratic world.)

2. Ascertain and reasonably prepare for satisfying the important immediate and the predictable future needs of the pupils.

3. Reveal by materials in themselves educationally valuable possibilities in the major fields of learning. (This means that everything taught should be good in itself and not good merely contingent on advanced study.)

4. Explore, again by materials in themselves worth while, the interests, aptitudes, and capacities of each individual pupil.

5. Start each individual on a program which, as a result of revealing and exploratory courses, facilitates guidance toward an education that promises to be of most value to him and to the supporting society.

(Justification of my use in this statement of the words good, valuable, and worth while, is by the simple and pragmatic philosophy of education that all of my former students and readers of my books know.)

Such a statement of the special functions of the junior high school, or a similar better one, is necessary as a criterion of the goodness of any recommendation regarding practice. Unfortunately, Dr. Conant does not present such a statement. And although some of his recommendations contribute to one or more of the proposed functions, they are made ex cathedra. It is fortunate that the occupant of the chair is so full of common sense and has wisely accepted the advice of professional educators, but each recommendation and each expression of opinion should be judged by reference to criteria that a reader has in his own philosophy of education and in the special functions that he approves for the junior high school.

Most of the recommendations that Dr. Conant makes are not novel. They have been made many times before by educators. However, since they were usually in professional publications, they have not been known by lay citizens. If known, they have not stimulated effort to break traditions that are outworn.

The special functions of a junior high school as stated were given wide approval by educators, but they have not had the effect on practice that they demand. For this there are several reasons. One is that a grievous sin of educators is to give verbal approval to a proposal and then to feel no responsibility to exert themselves to make it effective. It is easier to continue traditional practices, especially when the community makes no complaint, and vested interests, especially of teachers who have developed skills in their own fields, are reluctantly given up.

But the insuperable obstacle to changing the curriculum so that the functions can be realized is the lack of time, of materials; and of ingenuity to develop obviously needed teaching units. The Consumer Education Study spent nearly a half million dollars and several years of time to enable its skilled staff to produce a dozen teaching-learning units. Such costs in money and time are more than any school or school system can afford. When improved units are locally produced, they seldom are widely known or are used elsewhere.

What is needed and what I have long been convinced is inevitable is a permanent national curriculum research laboratory as well staffed as the research laboratories of industry, which spends on them annually more than half as much as all public education costs. Such a laboratory for education could answer the curriculum questions raised by clarified definitions and by the acceptance of a few clearly stated fundamental principles. One of these principles is that education is a long-time investment, not a sentimental and expensive gesture by the public to make the community a better place in which to live and in which to make a living. What other justification can there be for enforced taxes to support schools? When such a principle is recognized as sound, then the schools need to know what are the elements for instruction which will not only insure that each individual is educated for his future welfare, happiness, and success, but also will pay social dividends on the great investment that the public makes in supporting its schools. Only by research based on an interpretation of what the public wishes its community to be can the necessary raw materials of the curriculum be prepared. Such raw materials professional teachers can adapt to local conditions.

I am far from favoring the establishment of a national commission that will officially determine what our schools shall teach. The arguments against such centralization are too obvious to need stating here. The proposed laboratory would have no authority. It would simply do the research necessary to make available the data that will enable schools to develop courses of study consonant with accepted definitions and principles and adapted to the pupils enrolled. A report by the Modern

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Foreign Language Study several years ago of the frequency of occurrence of vocabulary, grammatical constructions, and idioms in French, German, Spanish, and Italian is an illustration of what is needed. But, to emphasize what is said above, all data should be evaluated by sound educational principles for its promised contribution to the desired growth of the young people enrolled.

Although no school can, by its own inventiveness, hope to develop a curriculum that will fully exemplify the stated functions of the junior high school, there is no reason why it should not go as far as possible in an attempt to do so. Besides emphasizing values—both utilitarian and cultural—adapted to discovered individual differences, this proposed program would make the junior high school an effective agent in guidance.

THE CURRICULUM IS PARAMOUNT

The curriculum is recognized by all professional educators as being of paramount importance over organization, administration, and techniques of teaching. A school is organized that it may be administered; it is administered that it may be instructed. Organization and administration have no other importance. Skilled instruction with bad or useless curriculum materials will simply turn out more of a poor product.

Although Dr. Conant makes general curricula recommendations for the junior high school, like many others, he is satisfied with naming courses of study without being concerned with their content. English, for example, may overemphasize any of its numerous elements—composition, oral or written; grammar, functional or not; literature, ancient or modern; prose or poetry; content or technique; biography; dramatics; and so on. Science may be wholly identification of specimens, or it may deal primarily with scientific thinking. In advocacy of a new mathematics course, a respected specialist has asserted that what is usually taught in highschool algebra and geometry is largely useless. Foreign language teaching may be merely drills on grammar, vocabulary, and idiom without developing ability to speak or read. There may be neglect of what is of value in general education, the geography and history of the country, the Realia and Kultur of its people, and an appetizing introduction to their literature through translation.

Without apparent concern for the content of courses of study and without noting that several professional groups are engaged in developing better materials, Dr. Conant's recommendations of a curriculum of conventionally named subjects are likely to inhibit rather than to accelerate the adoption of better content that professional educators recognize as desirable and necessary. It is not courses as such, but their content that is important.

DR. CONANT'S PERSONAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Now we come to the recommendations that result from Dr. Conant's personal opinion, opinions held before the study was undertaken and

probably not reinforced by his observation of practice in any considerable number of schools.

His emphasis on the importance of special attention to the gifted will find no dissent from either educators or laymen. It differs, however, from the tacit assumption of early secondary schools, which, in practice, used a curriculum profitable only to the gifted and ruthlessly eliminated those being unable to master its requirements. The junior high school, he would agree, is a sorting, not a sifting agent. Dr. Conant thoroughly believes that all youth should be educated. The steady advocacy in his earlier report of comprehensive high schools is only one evidence of his belief.

On a nationwide basis, Dr. Conant estimates that those he calls gifted constitute from 15 to 20 per cent of the youth population. But apparently, in his opinion, these are the youth gifted for abstractions. As a matter of fact, there are many more who are gifted in other respects—in social relations, in leadership, in manipulative skills, and in creativity. One psychologist has estimated that about a third who have unusual natural gifts for creation in the arts, literature, and invention are not endowed with high intelligence quotients as measured by the usual tests. It would be a national as well as a personal tragedy if youth with such gifts are not recognized and provided with an education peculiarly fitted to them. Dr. Conant either does not recognize this group or he makes scant mention of the kind of education that they should have.

Nor does Dr. Conant seem much concerned about an improved education for the masses. It is true that he properly makes much of the necessity for a sound basic education, especially in reading, an education which, if not satisfactorily achieved in the elementary grades, should be continued in the junior high school. But the non-gifted, who constitute the overwhelming majority of youth, need an improved educational program too. The effectiveness of those gifted academically will, to a large degree, depend on the masses educated to appreciate, approve, and support their work, and intelligently to use their products.

Leaders in education have proposed and justified enough sound theories for a new curriculum, for the gifted as well as for non-gifted, to revolutionize practice. It is to be regretted that this report and the earlier *The American High School Today* do not bring forcefully to the attention of school boards and other interested citizens that there are sound, proposed principles for curriculum reform that they should encourage, if not require, their employed educational staffs to apply, so far as they are able, to improve practice.

For the academically gifted, Dr. Conant proposes for two to five per cent an earlier beginning of algebra, "or one of the new brands of mathematics" and a continuance of advanced study of the subject so that the equivalent of a college freshman course can be taken in grade twelve. But he recognizes the danger that some schools will proceed too rapidly and include students who ought not to begin mathematics beyond arithmetic until grade five.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND MATHEMATICS

For the academically gifted, and for many others as well, he argues for instruction in modern foreign languages. (He says nothing about Latin.) "Some, but not all," he assents, "should start the study of a modern foreign language on a conversational basis with a bilingual teacher in grade seven." He does not recommend commencing the study of a foreign language prior to grade seven unless (the italics are his) the community demands it. Dr. Conant expresses no certainty "about who can profit from starting a foreign language in grade seven," for he recognizes that many will drop out in grades eight and nine with only a smattering that is of little or no permanent value. All will certainly agree with him that those who do begin should, in order to justify the election, continue its study until able to carry on a conversation with a native and to read intelligently at least the front page of a foreign language newspaper. Our practice has in general been far from requiring that degree of mastery.

It is natural for those who have a fluency in a foreign language and who have used their knowledge in research, in extensive foreign travel, or in diplomacy at home or abroad to think that more of our people should acquire the same skill. But few of our youth will ever have such needs. And unless one is a polyglot, he is still limited if he knows only one foreign language. The argument that a knowledge of one language greatly facilitates the learning of another, especially if it is not cognate, is moot. It certainly needs more evidence in its support than mere assertion.

It is equally natural that those who have got along with a degree of success in life without having mastered a foreign language should deprecate such study by all, or even by a majority, of our youth.¹ Some minds can acquire a foreign language with relative ease; others find it too difficult to warrant the effort. The latter group is further penalized by "hard learning, easy forgetting." One graduate of a classical course remarked that all he remembered of his Latin was part of the paradigm of a verb, "I'm a beau, I'm a bass, I'm a bat." By recalling experience, and by inquiring of acquaintances in our country, one can easily learn not only that the majority of those who have studied foreign languages have made little use of them, but also that others who are successful in their lives have not as a rule been seriously embarrassed by their ignorance. Everyone would like to have the ability to speak and to read many languages. but few in their adult life would be willing to pay the cost in time, effort, and money to acquire proficiency in even one.

In considering what emphasis our secondary schools should give to the study of foreign languages and also who should be required, encouraged, or permitted to pursue continued study, both educators and laymen should be influenced not by the prestige of those who advocate

¹ See "Who Should Study Foreign Languages" by Dr. Briggs in The BULLETIN of NASSP for December 1959, pp. 5-8.

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or deprecate such study, nor by pressure from over-ambitious parents. Instead, they should consider the arguments on both sides, the probable future needs of the pupil population, so far as they can with confidence be prophesied, and the cost, the cost not only in money but also in the deprivation of the study of other subjects of assured value, present and future.

Dr. Conant's proposed program for junior high schools, wherein it is novel, obviously is designed to promote the education of the intellectually gifted. For them it has much merit. In the details that already have general approval by professional educators his recommendations, such as his emphasis on reading and guidance, apply equally well for a program for the education of all youth, whether gifted or not. The best schools, and even some that are not so good, are already attempting to put them into practice. But there is still much to do, and this report, it is hoped and expected, will stimulate all schools to greater effort and accomplishment.

The first difficulty in putting the proposed program into effect is to ascertain early and with a minimum of waste who are the academically gifted, those who can profitably benefit from it. Teacher judgment, past school records, and tests are useful but far from infallible. And many ambitious parents urge a program which may not be best for their children. If the special functions earlier stated in this article are skillfully attempted, the junior high school by its exploratory and revealing courses, each one good to the extent pursued, will give the evidence that a guidance counselor can profitably use in steering young people into suitable future educations. As previously said, the junior high school should be a sorting, not a sifting agency.

SIZE OF SCHOOLS

For the Conant program, the author specifically says that relatively large schools are necessary. Grades seven and eight, should each contain a minimum of 125 pupils, a three-year junior high school enrolling 375. Dr. Conant thinks that an enrollment of 750 is better, but he deprecates a junior high school enrolling more than 1,500. Inasmuch as a majority of existing junior high schools have a smaller enrollment than is necessary for introduction of the full program as recommended, it is obvious that the report can have a limited influence on immediate practice. But Dr. Conant has long been a strong advocate of consolidation, which of course would result in larger enrollment. One danger resulting from his recommendations is that junior high schools with small enrollment in an attempt to provide for the intellectually gifted will deprive the majority of the pupils of the privilege, the only one that most of them will ever have, of an education suitable to their natural gifts and preparatory to richer and more profitable lives of the kind that nature has destined them to lead.

Dr. Conant says that "diversity with respect to the place of grades seven and eight in the organization of school systems is the most impor-

tant fact that I have to report." He gives the arguments for and against the various combinations of grades. Although it is safe to agree that the organization is of much less importance than what is taught, the stated arguments seem to favor a 6-3-3 organization.

It should be noted with approval that Dr. Conant emphasizes that special training is highly desirable for teachers in junior high schools and that experience there should not be regarded as a step to "promotion" to senior schools. An extensive and impartial study of teacher education, such as Dr. Abraham Flexner made a generation ago of medical education, is urgently needed. And it is hoped that Dr. Conant will undertake it after he has published his final report on secondary education.

CONCLUSION

This report on Education in the Junior High School Years is deserving of high praise. Although one may disagree with a few of its recommendations, there can be nothing but hearty endorsement of most of them. Superior to many previous reports, such as the ineffectual factual national survey of some years ago, it presents practical recommendations instead of statistical tables. Addressed as it is "to school board members and other citizens interested in public education," it should arouse more lay interest of a practical rather than a sentimental kind and stimulate to concerted action to bring about improvements that are obviously needed. The prestige of the author will and should have great weight. If the report causes increased public interest in education, school people will have a challenge and an opportunity that they have never had before to put into practice the approved recommendations.

For his devoted work the entire public owes to Dr. Conant a large debt of gratitude.

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A Reaffirmation of Faith in the Junior High Schools

JOSEPH O. LORETAN

JUNIOR HIGH MOVEMENT BEGUN EARLY IN NEW YORK CITY

SEPARATE seventh- and eighth-year schools called intermediate schools were established in New York City in 1901. But it was not until 1915-1916 that the Board of Education approved the addition of ninth-year classes and high-school subjects to the intermediate schools. In 1919, a committee of the Board of Education reported; "Your Committee believes the 6-3-3 plan to be one that offers opportunities never before presented in the way of differentiation based on capacity and future careers of pupils." By 1922, three junior high schools were in operation. In that year, William Ettinger, the superintendent of schools, after an extensive survey reported, "In view of the fact that the development of a system of junior high schools has been decided as an education policy and in view of the results of this survey, steps should be taken to extend the system of junior high schools." (Survey of the Junior High-School Report of the Superintendent of Schools.)

From 1930 to 1960 the New York City junior high schools more than doubled in number and register. The 180,000 junior high-school pupils now attending 127 junior high schools account for nearly 90 per cent of young teenagers attending public schools in New York City. The degree of commitment of the Board of Education to the 6-3-3 plan of organization is indicated by a building program, in which 50 new junior high schools have been built since 1940. More than one hundred million dollars has been spent on building junior high schools in the last 10 years. The definitive reaffirmation by the Board of Education of its faith in the 6-3-3 plan of school organization took place in 1939 and was based on the "Report of the Committee for the Study of Junior High Schools." (Report and Recommendations of the Committee on Junior High Schools, Board

of Education, 1939.)

For over a year a distinguished study group of educators and laymen led by Henry C. Turner, a member of the Board of Education, made a comparative study of the junior high schools and the 8B schools. In June 1939, this committee presented a historic report which brought to conclusion some 20 years of experimentation and hit-and-miss planning during which both types of schools were in operation. Since then, the basic policy changes in the New York City school system to a 6-3-3 organiza-

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tion upon which both the building program and educational structure have been implemented to an increasing extent so that, in a number of senior high schools, only a skeleton ninth-year organization made up mostly of parochial school graduates is maintained. The observations of the "Turner Committee" make interesting reading.

"The senior and vocational high-school principals expressed the opinion that pupils who came from junior high schools, properly equipped to offer a real program, evidenced their superiority over graduates from the 8B schools. According to these men and women, the fact that the junior high school does offer opportunities for differentiation, opportunities for choice of subject, opportunities for exploration, and greater opportunities along extracurricular lines produces a pupil who naturally fits into the high school more readily than the 8B pupil.

"The assistant superintendents also endorsed the junior high-school organization and asserted their faith in the validity of its program. In their judgment, the criticism against the junior high school is largely due to the difficulties, inadequacies, and compromises in carrying out the plan. Where the real objectives of the junior high school are being performed, they believe the pupils are getting the most out of their school life."

What the Turner Committee sought to determine was the kind of educational program which is necessary to satisfy the needs of adolescent boys and girls. The features in this program which stood out in the minds of the Committee were:

 The importance of segregating in a special school community children of adolescent age

The importance of providing a diversified and flexible program to meet the individual needs of these pupils

3. The administrative advantages which result from a large organization of pupils within a narrow grade range

4. The importance of having a unity of ideals, purposes, and govern-

ment in a school organization

The significance of a period of exploration, guidance, and selection bridging the elementary school and the senior high school

The importance of providing for the social development of adolescents

The advantage which accrues to the elementary school by the removal of the adolescent problem

The practical difficulties of providing an adequate program suited to adolescents in the typical eight-year elementary school

There have been many reaffirmations of the powerful statements made by the Board of Education of New York City in 1939. These have had the effect of speeding up the completion of the 6-3-3 organization as well as the application, where practicable, of desirable practices found successful in the junior high schools for the remaining 8B schools.

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RECENT REAFFIRMATIONS

In 1951 the New York State Education Department issued a directive entitled: "State Policies Relative to Junior High-School Programs of Education." This statement officially defines the secondary-school program as beginning with grade 7, and states that the minimum requirements for a junior high school, as to program, apply to grades 7 and 8, no matter what the particular type of school organization may be. The regulations state further that the organization and technique of classroom work should give recognition to individual differences in capacities, needs, and abilities. A definite and effective program of pupil guidance must be provided together with exploratory experiences which, however, should be part of an educational program that is functional in character. The school plant and equipment should be adequate for a secondary-school program and should include satisfactory libraries and facilities for the teaching of science, music, homemaking, and industrial arts.

In recognition of the increased cost of providing an adequate educational program for grades 7, 8, and 9, the state aid formula was changed and now provides the same aid for grades 7 and 8 as is provided for grades 9 through 12. This aid is granted, however, on the condition that a comparable program of secondary education will be provided for grades 7 and 8.

In 1954 the state followed this up with a highly regarded bulletin called the "Design for Early Secondary Education." In New York City the junior high school system in 1957 produced two statements: one dedicated to the retiring superintendent of schools, Dr. William Jansen, called, "William Jansen and the Junior High Schools," prepared by the Junior High-School Division, and the other entitled, "Guide to Curriculum Improvement Grades 7, 8, 9."

In 1957, upon becoming the head of the Junior High-School Division, this writer was confronted by challenges from several individual state legislators about the value of junior high schools. In a statement made to the Woman's City Club and widely circulated ("Are the Junior High Schools Serving Their Purpose"—mimeographed 1957), the writer summarized the major criticisms as follows:

- 1. Are junior high-school costs excessive?
- 2. Why is there a critical shortage of teachers in the junior high schools?
- 3. How well are our junior high schools serving their purpose?

ARE JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL COSTS EXCESSIVE?

"From 1952 to 1956 the Board of Education spent \$72,566,000 for 28 new junior high schools. In 1957, we spent \$32,855,000 more for 10 new buildings, moderinzations, and conversions. Why did we have to spend this large sum of money?"

Using average daily attendance figures, we find that during the four years, 1952-56 alone, the junior high schools gained 44,000 pupils, grow-

ing from 93,000 to 137,000. These pupils came from natural growth within the existing junior high schools plus additions from the reorganized seventh and eighth grades of 8B schools and the ninth grades of vocational and academic high schools. Actually the day senior and vocational high schools together lost 9,000 pupils in the 1952-56 period and the day elementary schools, Kg-8, gained only 2,000 pupils.

The percentage of pupils in grades 7 and 8 in the 8B schools in 1946 was 48. By 1955 this dropped to 25 per cent. In 1957 more than 85 per cent of all seventh- and eighth-grade pupils in New York City were in junior high schools. Sixty-eight per cent of all ninth-grade pupils in public schools in New York City are in junior high schools. The present register of junior high schools is 180,000. The main pressure of the current population explosion on the young teenage level has been carried by the junior high schools.

Considering the switch from 8-4 to 6-3-3 only from the point of view of satisfying building needs shows it to be an efficient economical measure. The absorption of thousands of seventh- and eighth-grade pupils from the 8B elementary schools into the junior high schools enabled the Elementary Division to use the vacated sittings from Kg-6 classes where they were needed desperately because the first impact of the great 1940 population wave was felt by the elementary schools. Thirty thousand sittings in 8B schools were made available to Kg-6 grade children as these schools were converted.

We just have to accept the fact that for many years, due chiefly to wars and depressions, few or no school buildings were built and our buildings—especially the junior high schools—were obsolete and beyond repair. Naturally, when money became available, this meant building many junior high schools. If we hadn't built junior high schools, we would have had to build more elementary schools and high schools. And we had to build too for many children moving to new parts of the city. Never in our history have we had a better planned and more dynamically executed building program. The enactment of a provision in a reformed City Charter requiring long-range planning for capital spending led to the growth of the junior high schools because the Board of Education had to submit plans based on six-year studies of building needs.

This is admittedly not a complete analysis of the cost factors in junior high schools. But it should suffice in this short statement to show two things: (1) that junior high schools have borne the brunt of the enrollment pressure of the teenage population in New York City; (2) that economies have been effected by converting to the 6-3-3 plan.

WHY IS THERE A CRITICAL SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS?

Of course, there are two obvious reasons. There have just not been enough teachers to be found because, while we have been and are still in the midst of a great population tidal wave, we are in the ebb portion

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of this wave so far as available college graduates are concerned. The college graduates of the last few years come largely from the births in the depression years. These were years of low birth rates. It has been estimated that, if the entire number of births of the 1929 to early 30's of college calibre had gone into teaching, we would still have had a shortage of teachers on a national basis.

Some less obvious reasons for the recruitment problem in the junior high schools are inherent in the actual process of growing and reorganization. During the fifties the New York City junior high schools have been growing by about 10,000 pupils a year. In the last ten years we have added 2,841 teachers to our staff. When a ninth year is added to a junior high school, the academic positions are transferred to the junior high schools. But the actual teachers are not transferred from the ninth year of the high schools. There are enough places left for them in the three-year high school. The enforced growth of the junior high schools placed almost all of the entire pressure of securing new teachers and supervisors upon the junior high schools.

The present practice of most colleges to offer "secondary courses" instead of dividing them into junior and senior high-school specialties makes it harder for school administrators to establish the junior high school as a separate, different, but just as important entity as the senior high school. In addition, everyone knows that teaching the young teenagers is difficult. It is rewarding but hard. By the time the eleven and twelve years of high school arrive, the problem students have dropped out. If one adds to this the still lingering tradition that teaching in the high school has more status value, one can surmise why the junior high schools have less teacher holding power.

How Well Are the Junior High Schools Serving Their Purpose?

There is a great deal of emphasis these days on the skills and attitudes. Let us include not just the 3 R's, but history, geography, homemaking, vocations, speech, how to study, how to concentrate, how to listen, how to be critical, and how to grow in the love of one's country and one's neighbor.

Some years ago, as a field superintendent, I had my share of anxious parents who persisted in charging that many bright pupils who had been promoted from junior high schools to high schools were failing in French and mathematics. They sounded so convincing that I conducted a survey. The survey showed: (1) that 95 per cent of these students were on the honor lists of the three high schools concerned, (2) that all former junior high-school students now in the high school where the complaints had been strongest had successfully passed geometry and the third term of their elected foreign language. Repeated surveys by respected committees have shown that ninth-year students of junior high school, including students completing the three-year junior high-school course in two years, do better than comparable ability groups doing their work in the first year of academic high schools.

There has always been a certain amount of griping about how well students are prepared. It stems from a natural desire to achieve good results. Some people have the idea that New York City junior high-school pupils are promoted automatically. The record will show that in New York City junior high schools about five per cent of our slower pupils are not promoted annually. In the last three years, 24,000 have had to repeat some of their work.

A few teachers and parents mix up standards and marks. "The harder the marker the better the teacher," say these people. It is not necessarily sol Failing a great many pupils may cover up bad teaching just as successfully as passing everybody. There is a need, being studied now, to develop a seven-year elementary curriculum for slow learners to replace the six-year course. The possibility of four-year courses for slow learners in junior high school and in high school is also being studied.

SOME COMMENTS ON "FUNDAMENTAL SKILLS"

It is not possible to discuss all of the fundamental skills in one article. Let's look at those about which community groups are most concerned—reading and mathematics.

In the standardized testing programs conducted by the Division of Tests and Measurements in the Bureau of Educational Research for the eighth grade last year in New York City, we find that, on a nationwide basis, we are holding our own in reading and mathematics so far as general averages and norms are concerned. Few people would know, however, that, of the normal pupils in junior high schools, those in the IQ range of roughly 90 to 110, there are thousands who are reading and ciphering one, two, and three years above their theoretical grades. There are also pupils with IQs in the 110 to 125 range who are reading what are usually considered twelfth-grade books. We have 8,500 pupils among our normal groups reading and ciphering in the tenth grade and above. At the time of testing, we had 5,200 pupils in our eighth-grade Special Progress classes-pupils with IOs of 130 or better. All but a few of these pupils are doing reading and arithmetic in percentiles equated with the tenth grade and above; 4,000 of the 5,000 are reading and ciphering in what is usually considered as the eleventh grade and above.

However, we do have problems in reading and other related subjects. Approximately 25 per cent of the students coming to junior high school are retarded two or more years in reading. Many of these are pupils of normal ability. We have thousands of pupils in the junior high schools who are mastering English as a second language. We have a special problem too with many slow learners who need more stimulation to learn, and we have our share of the pupils who it is said will never be good readers because they are not skilled in verbal abilities. Their skills lie elsewhere—some in mechanical ability, some in ability in getting along with people, some in amazing leadership qualities, but they are not inclined to read. They do not enjoy work with words in books and literature. They avoid reading as do many of their parents; in this present

world, they have plenty of things to occupy their time without opening a book

Yet, it has been proved that, with specially trained teachers working with small groups, and with the help of skilled social workers, psychologists, and guidance experts, the abilities of many of the above named groups of pupils can be improved. To reach such children, we should have as an absolute minimum, three times the number of our present remedial reading staff. This would come close to three corrective reading teachers for every school of 1,000 pupils in critical areas and one for every other junior high school. In addition every junior high-school teacher has to be taught the fundamentals of a developmental reading program. Staffs of colleges have not taught junior high-school teachers how to teach the reading skills of their specialities.

Where are we going in the junior high schools in the matter of higher standards and a differentiated curriculum? Is subject promotion the answer? It seems so. Increased knowledge of the potential of pupils coming to the junior high schools enables the schools to classify them earlier and more effectively. Some junior high schools make extensive use of block periods and some continue to make excellent use of core concepts particularly in the seventh year. To enable pupils to advance as rapidly as they can—some slowly, some more quickly—it is necessary that promotion by subject be permitted. Study in greater depth is indicated as are advanced standing plans and reorganized secondary-school curricula.

Talent classes based on special aptitudes and needs, foreign languages for seventh-year students, individualized programming in the skills are all aspects of present-day junior high-school operation in New York City. The flexibility upon which the junior high-school idea was based initially is still one of the great elements in its favor. It would be a pity and a set back if the movement to reorganize the junior high-school curriculum would bring with it the extension of the outmoded concept of the Carnegie Unit.

In the junior high school with its large organization, it should not be necessary to maintain rigid grade lines. A pupil need not be held back an entire year in all his subjects because he happens to fail in one or two. Does this mean a return to semi-annual promotion? Or does it rather mean summer schools, extended school days, and new and radical departures from the conventional class sizes and forty-five-minute periods?

EARLY TEENAGERS NEED A CLIMATE OF THEIR OWN

Boys and girls of junior high-school age should have an opportunity to get to know each other in gradually guided and increasingly mature ways, rather than to be suddenly thrown into high-powered sophisticated social situations. Junior high schools have age groups running from eleven to sixteen years of age with the median around thirteen and a half. Young teenagers are just really outgrowing their childhood. They should not

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have to stay with the babies, but they shouldn't suddenly have to grow up into young men and women. The median age of high-school boys and girls is seventeen. There are thousands of 18, 19, 20, and 21-year-old young men in senior high schools.

The more we learn about social psychology and the developmental processes of people and the needs of youth in particular, the more we are developing wiser insights about how to meet the social needs of young

adolescents.

Studies of developmental psychology, started by Thorndike and others and continued today by Gesell and Ilg and others, show the need for special facilities for the education of eleven- to fifteen-year olds. Dr. Fritz Red'l, Chief of the Child Research Lab of the National Institute of Mental Health, remarked in a National Forum devoted to junior high-school education: "In summarizing the importance of the general structure of this age range, I wish to point out that we really have to deal with this transition as a main job."

And Gesell and Ilg in that great research document, Youth, the Years from Ten to Sixteen, say of the 14-year old: "The fourteen-year old occupies a zone of maturity intermediate between the elementary or grammar school and the senior high school. Viewed in developmental perspective, he is definitely 'outgrowing' the limitations of the lower grades. His mental maturation is proceeding rapidly, in preparation for higher grades. But in this early phase of transition, he may not yet be in favorable position to meet the stresses and competition of a big, strenuous

high school."

The various social functions going on in the junior high schools on different grade levels, as well as school-wide activities, help students get together in the friendly, informal gatherings that they have helped to plan and carry out. Later they, with the schools' help, will evaluate them. Here thirteen-year olds do not have to compete with eighteen-year olds in planning school festivals. Age is a keenly followed status rule among teenagers. The discipline we must provide for a ninth-grade pupil (age 12, 13, 14. or 15) does not work with late 16, 17, and 18-year olds.

PRACTICAL CITIZENSHIP TRAINING

As part of the teaching in various curriculum areas, and as part of citizenship training in G.O. activities, especially in classes in social studies, we teach students the techniques of committee work. Some people crack jokes about committees. But the whole country is run by committees. Most of them are good, but some of them are pretty bad. We believe that learning about how to be a good team member of a committee and how to accept a committee job and do it is a big need in our democracy. How to be a good follower and a good leader has to be taught. These skills are not acquired through inheritance. In addition, they are valuable social assets and a great help in the personality growth of the youth.

A basic policy in junior high school, based on the great moral and spiritual heritage of our country, is that individuals must develop high personal standards of right and wrong. Encouraging our students to help upgrade personal discipilinary standards, as well as ideals of classroom and school conduct, is crucial. Human relations projects in which junior high schools have adopted hospitals and orphan asylums take on added significance when run by the school G.O. In this way we encourage both a sense of responsibility and a decent regard for the contributions of others.

Learning from books about the rights and duties of young citizens in a democracy is good and necessary, and we emphasize reading about our American heritage. Having genuine class elections and school elections and furnishing opportunities to accept responsibility are equally important. Some schools have found it valuable to establish school courts. They have found out also that the history of jury trials and civil liberties are much more significant if selected classes can actually see a jury trial in action. If such a program is conducted, justices can-point out the high spots of the law. The students then go to their books to study the history of jury trials and civil liberties. Their respect for our country increases as a result.

GUIDANCE THROUGH THE ARTS

Every junior high school has a number of industrial arts and home-making classes and a great variety of such subjects as music, art, type-writing, to which all junior high-school pupils go from one to six periods a week. Let me select one area for special comment—the industrial arts and home economics. In New York City we have about a thousand teachers working in practical arts classes alone. Why do we do this? Because an imperative need of all junior high-school youth is to explore their own aptitudes and to have a beginning of insight basic to understanding occupational proficiency. The traditional academic subjects reveal much to individuals about their strengths, especially when supplemented with effective, intelligently interpreted, standardized testing. But in the practical arts classes, we can stimulate broad ranges of avocational, cultural, and recreational interests not otherwise reached. Basic economic concepts in labor, production, and consumption are discussed in a practical setting.

How better can a student begin to broaden his knowledge of his aptitudes and abilities, and have a sounder basis for making valid decisions regarding educational and vocational opportunities, than these exploratory shops? Textbook study, while essential, will never do everything. One can't learn to use a saw just by reading a book. Here too, the shop teachers and guidance staff can get a new view of the student's persistence, imagination, and manipulative skill and, in time, also make suggestions to him about possible high schools to attend. Here is a place where some of the theories learned in science, mathematics, and art can be tried out. Here too we have practical bases for remotivating the students on their need for drill in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Group projects are developed with their great potential for personality growth and character development. In the homemaking classes we

have lessons in consumer education, food preparation, and discussions of how teenagers can share in making their homes attractive physically and socially. These classes in practical arts are not elective nor selective. They are programmed for all boys and girls, bright and dull alike. The people who have doubts about the values of the shops need only to visit them to be converted.

ARTICULATION AND GUIDANCE

Articulation is a job for the whole school system. Articulation between the elementary schools and the junior high schools on the one hand and between the junior high schools and the high schools on the other needs to be improved. It is far better between the elementary schools and the junior high schools than between the junior high schools and the high schools. This task will be made easier as we move into the final stages of the 6-3-3 plan. Curriculum goals can be implemented more easily, as well as evaluation of growth in content areas. When all the ninth-grade pupils are in junior high school, the mechanics of admission and programming should be easier.

Last year in New York City the Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance was able to begin on a program of borough coordination of guidance services in which assistant superintendents, principals of schools, and district coordinators have been meeting in various schools to discuss

common problems.

The Curriculum Division and the Junior High-School Division have been encouraging subject groups to meet in areas where difficulties occur, especially in math and foreign languages. With foreign languages beginning in the seventh year and even earlier, such conferences become increasingly important. (The use of Federal funds to increase guidance services is certain to have important results in helping to find talented youngsters.)

The staff get-togethers need to be increased on the local level under the general direction of assistant superintendents. As the teachers meet, we hope to develop a greater degree of mutual respect. The high schools and junior high schools must agree that teaching teenagers young or old

requires great skill and knowledge.

Dr. James Conant, in his classic work, The American High School Today, pleads for schools large enough to permit grouping based on ability while at the same time permitting pupils of all abilities to mingle socially. Actually this has been a primary goal often not possible of execution of junior high schools for the last twenty-five years. In New York City, Superintendent Ettinger said in 1923, "Since the junior high school has a large number of pupils in a given grade, it affords better opportunities for classifying pupils according to their ability, for modifying the course of study, etc."

All secondary-school educators agree that the problem of steering pupils wisely into high-school careers is not the simple matter it once was when the primary objective of high-school education was preparation for college. The fields of secondary training have expanded tremendously in S

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recent years. In addition to the general academic high schools, specialized schools for applied and fine arts have been organized. Technical high schools and vocational high schools have been established with multiple types of highly specialized courses. Intelligent educational guidance of pupils in a proper choice of secondary school becomes one of the most responsible services which the junior high school may perform. The three years which bridge the gap between the six years of basic elementary training and the specialized training of the senior high school must be directed toward discovering and steering the wisest course which each pupil should follow.

Every junior high school in the city is required to prepare a careful analysis of all entering seventh-grade pupils. In addition, the Elementary Division and the Junior High-School Division are embarking on a joint project, the development of an articulation card. The junior and the senior high schools have developed a six-year cumulative record card for

junior and senior high schools.

Articulation as an aspect of guidance will be helped when every difficult junior high school of a thousand has at least six licensed guidance counselors and every other junior high school of the same size at least four.

A quotation from the Turner Report referred to at the outset of this article is appropriate in conclusion:

Opportunity should be available to all pupils to have as many and as varied experiences as the school has to offer. Discovery of individual aptitudes and abilities should be the air of each school experience. In this sense, every subject is exploratory and every teacher is a guidance counselor. This presumes that guidance to be effective must employ more discriminating criteria than success or failure in academic subjects. Guidance is more than a specialized service, to be delegated to some expert, however important such service may be. It is an integral part of all school experience to be regarded as the major function of the teacher.

In the junior high school, the opportunity is offered for subject election, the assumption of a larger degree of self-discipline, greater participation in school government and socializing activities, more self-directed study both at school and at home, and subject-teaching. These should be developed gradually from the seventh year, reaching a point in the ninth year which will approximate the conditions confronting the pupil upon entering the senior high school.

The socially homogeneous population of the junior high school permits a large variety of activities. These include home rooms, student government organizations, athletic teams, music and dramatics, journalistic activities, talent classes, and various other functions which supplement the usual instructional program. The school becomes a functional social community—a satisfying place for boys and girls to live and work in.

Educators being the perfectionists they are, I suppose we will always be wanting more facilities so that we can do an increasingly better job with our precious youth who grow up with such speed. While working to get perfect staffs, perfect pupils, and perfect schools, we will keep asking ourselves, "Are we doing the best we can with the facilities we now have?"

The Exploratory Concept in the Junior High Schools

ABRAHAM GELFOND

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THE curriculum of the junior high school seems to be threatened by a double barrelled attack. Senior high schools suggest that subjects traditionally taught at the higher levels be moved into the junior high school. Elementary schools are introducing foreign languages with the implication that the junior high schools must go forward with what has already been initiated at a lower level.

The junior high school is faced with the question of whether it will maintain that its function is to offer an exploratory program, or whether it should serve mainly as an intermediate element of a continuous process of education. Put more bluntly, the question becomes: Should the junior high school, because of having the unique function of offering exploratory programs to its students resist all pressures which may in some measure determine the character of its curricular offerings?

For many years, the word "exploratory" has been consistently used to emphasize the special function of junior high schools. In the earliest period, vocational subjects were particularly emphasized because of the high percentage of drop-outs. More recently, the number of drop-outs have decreased considerably. Now the emphasis on exploration is focused on those activities which might bear on later elective programs in the senior high school, or even in college. Vocational exploration has been replaced by educational exploration. Somehow the word "exploratory" has become enshrined in the vocabulary dealing with junior high schools. At this point it seems to stand as an axiomatic concept.

We are now faced with the alternative of holding fast to our axiom or daring to re-examine its validity or even its usefulness. I suggest that progress occurs in every human science only when worn-out postulates are discarded and are replaced by new hypotheses which can better support present-day problems and actualities. Let us, then, examine this "exploratory" hypothesis to determine whether it should continue as part of the basic structure of junior high-school organization.

It is difficult to get a definition for this presumably simple concept. In some places, there have been short-term courses in foreign languages or even algebra—some of the programs as short as three months. More often than not, the reaction has been that these short courses have little learn-

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ing value and that one cannot explore the forest by peeking through a small bush.

So we come down to the "Shop Program." Frankly, it is difficult for me to believe that we are providing shops for our students to help them determine whether they wish to be cabinet makers, cooks, seamstresses, or sheet metal workers. I am more inclined to the view that we teach our shop program for no other reason than that it is worth while for our young people to develop manual skills while using common materials. This value exists whether the exploratory function is served or not. As a matter of fact, the use of the fingers in the metal shop may well be significant training for the future dentist. Guidance counselors might well consider this type of experience when they are involved in vocational discussions.

I wonder if we are not guilty of gross conceit if we believe that educational exploration for any purpose is uniquely confined to a junor high school, even for the most part. It strikes me that an eleventh-grade course in chemistry may serve a very practical purpose insofar as exploration is concerned. I wonder if the athletic lad who tries out for track even in the eleventh grade may not be serving the cause of exploration. I wonder further if the whole program of reading in the elementary school may not well be the most important exploratory program of all. By the time our students enter the seventh grade, it is often quite clear who among them likes books and academic subject matter, and, in fact, who is likely to go to college.

What is a junior high school, then, if it is not especially situated to offer an exploratory program? I suggest that the most important word in the title "Junior High School" is the word "school." A school is a place for learning and the same definition holds true whether it be the elementary, junior high-, or senior high-school levels. The junior high school has a function as part of a continuing process by which we publicly educate our young people. It seems dangerous to me to accept a concept which in any way separates a three-year program of schooling from close and organized continuity with the lower and higher levels.

The junior high school does not require the word "exploratory" to justify its existence. There are proved, valid reasons for its existence in terms of the physical and sexual development of human beings. We smooth the transition from childhood to adolescence. We segregate the youth who are at the climax of this tremendous change of status. We segregate them because they do not fit in with younger children nor are they quite ready for the older teenagers. There is no reason why this physical segregation must in any way lead to educational segregation. Logically, we cannot maintain that our function is so unique that we have the right to destroy the continuity of the total educational development of our children. We are only a link in the chain.

Yet we do have a right and duty to be heard relative to the prospective curricular changes in the senior high schools and elementary schools. As part of the educational continuity, any curricular change which affects our pupils is of great concern to us as principals. If the junior high schools are asked to adjust their programs to changes from above or below, it is only prudent that leaders in the junior high schools be consulted as to the merit of the proposed changes. It is all too possible that the price of adjustment may be weaker programs in the language arts, social studies, and the shops. For myself, I am particularly disturbed over the prospect that the great pressures for science and foreign languages may alter our devotion to a most basic hypothesis, the belief that our schools should teach the history of mankind so that the achievement and development of democracy is truly understood.

The substance of my position can be summarized in this way. If we object to the programs which may soon affect us, we must maintain that objection because of the quality of the suggested programs. Acceptance or rejection must be based on the values those programs offer to the educational process. Further, we cannot place reliance on a pat formula which claims that junior high schools are exploratory. Let us remember that while it is true that junior high schools have an important exploratory function, all other schools at all other levels also help students explore their interests and their aptitudes—vocational, educational, and social.

Student Self-Acceptance and Curriculum Organization in the Junior High School

ROBERT L. SHANNON

RECENT research in the behavioral sciences has revealed the importance of perceptual psychology in understanding human behavior. An individual's perceptions of self and others have been shown to determine,

to a considerable extent, what he does and what he believes.

Persons who accept themselves as worth-while individuals and who perceive others in their peer group as being equally self-accepting have been found to be better leaders, more successful in academic pursuits, more responsible, and with fewer physical complaints. Evidence suggests that self-accepting persons are better able to make the kinds of contributions that are necessary for individuals to make in our society. These persons are best equipped for successful human relations, an essential competency for effective citizenship.

An area of educational research needing investigation concerns the problems arising from the development of self-others concepts. Self-acceptance and acceptance of others in the peer group are cultivated perceptual qualities. Cultivation of these traits begins at an early age and changing the perceptions of self and others becomes a difficult problem. Perceptual theory holds that a basic consideration of any plan for educating is an awareness that the principal function of educating is to develop persons who have positive concepts of self and others.

With an awareness of the contributions of persons who accept self and others, and an understanding of the problems involved in cultivating positive perceptual qualities, it becomes evident that research is needed which identifies those school experiences which contribute to the development of self-accepting persons. What is the nature of the school experience that effectively creates a situation where humans will develop posi-

tive concepts of themselves and others?

An attempt to provide part of the answer to this question was made in the research herein reported, which was performed at Florida State University as part of the doctoral dissertation. One question which this study attempted to examine was: what is the relationship between the self-others perceptions of junior high-school students and the curriculum organization of their school experience? In a period when much pressure and thinking is in progress which tends to suggest a move to complete

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departmentalization at the junior high-school level, there is an urgent need to examine the various plans of curriculum organization at this level to determine their effects on the desired development of the young people in early adolescence.

Subjects for this research were 2,626 junior high-school students in five junior high schools. The schools are in three different communities and represent three distinctly different curriculum organizations.

A departmental structure, the self-contained classroom design, and a block-departmental pattern are the three curriculum plans that were included in the research. For purposes of this study, the departmental structure was identified as that curriculum design in which the school subjects are taught in isolated fashion through a period-by-period arrangement. The self-contained classroom type of curriculum is one in which students remain with the same teacher through the major portion of the school day. In the block-departmental plan, students stay with one teacher for a two or three period segment of the day and the remainder of the day follow a period-by-period arrangement similar to a departmental structure.

To obtain self-concept information, the Index of Adjustment and Values (IAV) was used. Developed by Bills, Vance, and McClean at the University of Kentucky, the IAV is a self-rating device that measures the self-concept, self-acceptance, and concept of the ideal self.1 A second form of the IAV provides a person's perceptions of peers in these categories. This research utilized only the information which revealed the degree of self-acceptance and perceptions of peers' self-acceptance.

Four classifications of self-others concepts were derived from the IAV. Persons who accept themselves as persons with dignity and worth and who perceive others in their peer group to be equally or more selfaccepting are called ++ individuals. Students who do not accept themselves, but perceive others in the peer group to be more accepting of themselves are identified as -+. Those who accept themselves, but perceive others to be less accepting of themselves are +- individuals. The classification describes those persons who do not accept themselves, and who feel that others in their peer group are even less accepting of themselves.2 These symbols are used in this report to identify the persons in each of the four categories.

What happens to the development of self-others concepts when junior high-school students experience a particular curriculum design? Using the chi square technique to measure the significance of certain differences in the effects of curriculum organization, chi square was found to be significant at the .01 level. There appears to be a significant relationship be-

^a Robert E. Bills, About People and Teaching. Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1955. Pp. 21-22.

¹ Robert E. Bills; Edgar L. Vance; and Orison S. McClean, "An Index of Adjustment and Values." Journal of Consulting Psychology, XV (1951), 257-261.

tween the curriculum organization which junior high-school students experience and the self-others perceptions of those students.

The table reveals an interesting pattern. In the ++ category a difference can be seen in favor of the self-contained classroom. While the self-contained pattern contains more in the ++ group than could be statistically expected in this group if no differences exist in the effects of the three curriculum patterns, many fewer than the expected number of cases are found in the departmental structure. The block-departmental structure is also favored over the departmental structure in the development of ++ persons.

STUDENTS' SELF-OTHERS CONCEPTS AND CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION—THREE PATTERNS

Student	Organization				
IAV Rating	Departmental	Block Time and Departmental	Self- Contained	Total	
observed + +	130	263	121	514	
expected	142.7	260.5	110.8		
observed + -	211	313	135	659	
expected	182.9	334	142		
observed - +	238	473	211	922	
expected	255.9	487	198.7		
observed	150	282	99	531	
expected	147.4	269.1	114.4		
Total	729	1,331	566	2,626	
F.01 = 16.8			$X^2 = 12.9026$		

The reverse is true in the +- category. Students experiencing the departmental plan are observed considerably more frequently than would be expected statistically in the +- group. Both the self-contained classroom plan and the block-departmental structure produced fewer than the expected number of +- persons. Briefly examining the characteristics of the +- person as described by Bills, it is important to emphasize that the +- person is regarded as a -+ person who is defending himself against others. He mistrusts himself. He is regarded as the least successful type for a leadership role. The +- person feels that he is accepted by others, but actually he is rejected. The departmental cur-

riculum plan was found to produce a high proportion of +- persons, which can be construed as an undesirable outgrowth of the departmental arrangement. The fact that both the self-contained plan and the block-departmental structure produced fewer than the expected number of +- cases is construed to be a positive factor in favor of the self-contained and block-departmental plans.

The -+ person has many of the same beliefs about other people as does the ++; however, he cannot accept himself as the worth-while individual the ++ perceives himself to be. The -+ is, nevertheless, regarded immediately below the ++ as a selected leader and as a successful teacher. The -+ is accurate in his perceptions about reality, and strives hard to please other people. The -+, it seems, is more desirable in our society than the +-.

The prevalence of more than the expected number of -+ cases in the self-contained group might, therefore, be construed as a further evidence in favor of the self-contained classroom.

In the —— group it was found that both the departmental and block-departmental structures exceed the expected number, while the self-contained plan produced fewer than the number of —— persons that would appear in that curriculum plan if no differences existed in the influences of the three types of school organization. Again, the evidence favors the self-contained curriculum.

The findings of this research cannot be construed as definitive evidence. However, at the junior high-school level the self-contained classroom appears to be more productive of persons who accept themselves and perceive others to be self-accepting persons than are either the departmental or block-departmental organizations. The departmental design seems to be less successful than either the block-departmental plan or the self-contained classroom types of curriculum organization in producing junior high-school students who possess positive perceptual qualities.

Implications of this research suggest that a student's self-acceptance and his perceptions of peers' self-acceptance are measurably influenced by the curriculum organization of his school experience.

The extent to which one can accept the theory and research of perceptual psychology will determine the significance of these findings to particular school planners. If the research is accepted which reveals that school achievement, social participation, leadership, and psychosomatic health are significantly related to self-acceptance and perceptions of peers self-acceptance, considerable attention must be directed to designing a school experience that is more successful in the development of persons possessing such positive perceptual qualities.

The Successful Teenage Student—What Made Him That Way?

BERNARD G. KELNER

MAYBE you are the parent who stands quietly by while your neighbors comment, "Mary's boy did it again—a beautiful report card from school." "That girl of Joan's has always been the most popular in her class." "Bill is just as good. He studies hard, yet he has time for the team. He's a real leader!" Or maybe you are just Mr. Citizen aghast at the headlines of juvenile delinquency asking "What makes some of these adolescents go straight while other go wrong?" Or maybe you are the teacher wondering why some students are tops in charm, popularity, and achievement.

These are the questions raised by a group of teachers at Furness Junior High School. They looked about the large school located in South Philadelphia's teeming waterfront and set themselves some problems: "Once the characteristics of the top students were known, would the faculty study the entire school program to make certain there was ample opportunity for the development of these characteristics?" "Would parents be interested and be helped by the information we gather?" "In short, if we knew more about the background of our successful students, could we help other students to go and do likewise?"

The first problem the research group faced was deciding which students were to be studied. Two stiff requirements were demanded. To begin with, the student had to receive a rating of good or excellent from his adviser on an appraisal form that listed such qualities as leadership, scholarship, sociability, and character. Moreover, the student had to be nominated both by his class and the student council for an office in the student government. Consequently, each student selected was not only singled out by his teachers, but was also popular with his peers. Of the 250 in the 9B class, only eight qualified, three boys and five girls.

Then the work really began. Each member of the research group working independently, took responsibility for one phase of the problem. One teacher interviewed each student. The principal interviewed at least one parent of each student. The roster chairman administered a standardized personality test. One teacher examined records dating as far back as kindergarten. Another teacher interviewed the teachers of the students. The chairman of the research group was the only one who

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received the findings of each of the investigators. When he put the information together, he found striking similarities for each student!

WHAT WERE THESE SIMILARITIES?

They Were Healthy

"I can take things in my stride." "I can laugh things off." "I ignore the little things," were statements heard through the interviews with the students. Though all had suffered a normal share of childhood diseases, only one had had a serious illness. The parents reported that their children had good dispositions from infancy. Both the students and their families could be rated as physically and emotionally well.

They Were Economically Secure

Though all lived in the little row houses of the downtown section of Philadelphia, none starved, worried about rent, or lacked adequate medical attention. Their homes were typical of those who had lived in the neighborhood a long time and they were well cared for. Never rich, there was still enough to "keep the wolf away from the door." All of the mothers made a strong attempt to remain at home, but occasionally some had to take outside employment, but always on a temporary basis. The fathers were hardworking, rarely earning more than a minimum wage, but the money was spent on the family and the children's needs were never forgotten.

Several of the students had to work after school, and one girl helped tend her father's little store. The money earned was given without question to the parents for the common welfare. Several of the students expressed a desire to have more of the worldly goods, but none appeared to press this feeling into brooding.

They Were Strictly Disciplined

In every case, there was a strong parent whose word was law. Spanking, nagging, or loss of privilege might be the punishment, but no child ever doubted that the parent would win out. The parents described themselves as strict but fair. For their part, the students expressed no resentment concerning discipline. "I know my mother is strict, but she wants the best for me. Besides I don't think it's good for a teenager to do whatever he wants. After all we don't know everything," was the typical response.

They Received Social Training in the Home

Since they lived in an overcrowded and changing community with neighbors of different religious, national, and cultural backgrounds, these students were taught "to get along with all kinds of people." The social graces involved in making friends, receiving guests, participating in discussion, and avoiding trouble were learned originally in the home. Children of different races and religions were invited with parental approval into the home.

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Poise and courtesy were considered by the students as musts for an attractive personality. People were to be treated as friends because "all men are equal." Though the recipient of many honors both in and out of school, none of the students considered himself extraordinary. They rated themselves as normal rather than outstanding.

School was used as a source of friends and this reason was cited again and again as one of the chief assets of a good school. Indeed, the charm of the students was probably the reason they were voted into office by their classmates. "He makes friends so easily . . . a regular guy." "She never rubs you the wrong way," were among the comments made by those who met these students.

Dating was "light." The strict supervision of the parents would have prevented more than one night out a week. There were no "steadies" and all the students matter-of-factly described themselves as too young for love. One had the impression that, when serious dating occurred, it would be deliberate, with parental approval, and with marriage as the object.

The interest tests bore witness to the social training. Scores in science and mathematics were average, in musical and clerical fields were low; but, in areas of persuasiveness, the tops of ratings were reached.

They Respected Education

Early in life, these students acquired from their parents a healthy respect for schools and teachers. From kindergarten on, school became the center of social as well as academic life. All had immigrant grand-parents who treasured free public education. School was the stepping stone to a better job, a higher standard of living, a more beautiful neighborhood. In this home, teachers were extolled, hardly ever questioned, and always obeyed.

Perhaps as a result, their school records were consistently good, and this despite the fact that their IQ's ranged from 85 to 117, ratings that are average at best. "Learning comes easy to me." "I've always liked to go to school." "I probably won't get the chance to get to college, but I want to make the most out of the time I do go." They had always made their grade level or above in reading comprehension, arithmetic fundamentals and problems, English usage, location of information, and map and graph reading. Early records revealed that by the fourth grade, half of the students had been "skipped." Cooperation ratings were always A or B.

While no pattern of study habits could be seen, each student acknowledged that he made certain that his homework was always done. The girls particularly had so many household chores that study was conducted "on the run." Career choices were professional even though they recognized that financial limitations would bar most of them from an education beyond the high school.

They Had Self-Esteem

The very bearing of students and parents impressed the interviewers as coming from self-confidence. They considered themselves as "quality," the higher strata of the community. A record of dependability had already been established by the students. This confidence did not spill over into arrogance. They responded to questions with quiet frankness and gave freely of their opinions regarding themselves, of others, and of life in general. Interested in the purposes of this study, they expressed a desire to share whatever talents they had with whatever group would need their help. They looked toward the future unafraid and assured that they would be able to meet whatever problems would come their way.

They Had Little Interest in Their Community

Like their parents, these students spoke of the neighborhood in terms of the past, "when it was safe to walk the streets" and all the people were "decent and lawabiding." Though they were friendly to all, they did not show any fervor to improve a changing community. If fortune was favorable and additional funds were obtained then "I should like to move to the Northeast where my cousins live. They have big houses and playgrounds and trees and it's safe to walk the streets at nights." Home at present was to be a haven of culture admidst neighbors who were to be tolerated.

Friendships were made chiefly in school, in social agencies, many of which were outside the community, or with relatives who had moved away. The parents encouraged these friendships and provided the necessary funds to encourage these activities.

They Had Interested Parents

Above all else, the students had parents who were concerned about their children and were responsive to their needs. Pop and Mom always wanted to know about their children's friends, school work, and problems. There was time to talk as a family about common plans. The Sunday afternoon ride and the summer vacation were, in the main, family affairs. Even though the parents "had the last word," they invariably "listened to the children's story and gave reasons why I was going to do what I had decided." Never were these students ignored by brothers, sisters, parents, or relatives.

The family unit was to be respected and preserved at all costs. One mother, when seriously ill, was visited in the hospital every day for three months by her daughter who would sit by the bedside, doing homework, until the evening hours. At school events, when one of these students was to perform or to be recognized, the parents would leave work even at the loss of salary to be at school. And not only the parents, but every available relative including aged grandparents would attend. Friends were taken home to meet the family. Awards were prominently displayed on the family mantlepiece or living room table. One father, a traveling salesman, drove fifty miles to keep his school appointment because "anything

that will help my daughter or other children comes first." When the students were asked to name the people most valuable and influential to them, each listed his first choice as being "my parents."

WHAT ARE THE IMPLICATIONS?

To be popular with both classmates and teachers, to make top grades through nine years of schooling, to meet new situations with confidence are achievements of only the most successful junior high-school students. Now that the teacher-investigators had noted common characteristics of these students, what implications could they draw for parents, teachers, and public-minded citizens?

For the Home

Parents studying the results of the research would find it obvious that the family was the inspiration for each successful student. Severe discipline, burdensome home chores, and denial of requests were borne with equanimity by children who never doubted their parents' love. Of all the people they met, none impressed them more, and to none did they give more allegiance than to their parents.

For their part, their parents were content to accept their children as individuals with strengths and weaknesses. Comparisons with other children were studiously avoided. Each child was to do his best. If honors were received, so much the better; if they were not, the trying was appreciated.

While many of the charges made by the parents against the community were true, for example the high crime rate, there was little training for dealing with realities in civic life. Suppose the family was not successful in its attempt to move to a more favored area, how well equipped were these students to face that eventuality?

Social training given in the home proved most effective in the school. One wonders, however, how deep the human sympathy was. Would these students really be content to live their lives out with underprivileged people of other races and religions?

But if other parents were to make a check list for themselves, it would certainly include the following:

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- 1. Provide time daily to be with, talk to, my teenage child?
- Support the school in its work by praise of teachers, by checking my child's work, by insisting that he do his best?
- 3. Discipline without equivocation—listening to his side, yes, agreeing or disagreeing as the case may be, but never permitting any doubt as to who is the final authority?
- 4. Recognize my child as an individual, unique with strengths and weaknesses, to be loved for himself alone?
- 5. Give social training particularly in getting along with different kinds of people?

For the School

These students came to school with a headstart. Their records affirm the effectiveness of home training. It seems reasonable to suppose that the unsuccessful student has not received effective home training. Would it not be profitable, then, for the school to examine its program to introduce or to expand the very strengths of a good home?

Should a school's check list, contain at the very least:

Is each student recognized and respected as an individual? Are opportunities for successful achievement available to all? Are negative comparisons or competition held to a minimum?

2. Is discipline fair but firm? Can one student pit one teacher against the other? Are limits set and enforced? Does each student have the security of knowing that neither he nor anyone else can violate human rights with

impunity?

3. Is sufficient social training provided to fill the gaps left by inadequate parents? Does the curriculum contain opportunities for learning how to make friends, how to practice social courtesies, how to participate in group enter-

prises?

- 4. Is there support for the home which, even when inadequate, is still the prime influence upon the student? Are constructive home values and loyalties encouraged? Is the student helped to believe his family is worth belonging to?
- 5. Is there an active program of home and school relations in which information such as uncovered in this study, is disseminated through the community? Do parents feel free to work with teachers on problems affecting children?

For Society

To have a good family is to have a good education. In almost these words, the study underscores the values of the home. A teacher may be a second parent by law, but, at best, he remains a substitute for a real father. The tie-in between parental interest and success in school is the

most striking finding.

Parental interest was shown by firm discipline, by sharing of activities, by support of children's legitimate purposes especially educational, and by sacrifice to provide economic necessities. In these ways, the family was kept as a harmonious unit. On the other hand, unsuccessful students appear to come frequently from families that have either little parental interest or an interest that is distorted. An investigation of unsuccessful students that was going on at the same time in the high-school level in the city reported:

. . . slow learners are distinctly less favored in life. They are apt to be at the lowest level economically and would, therefore, have the poorest in housing, clothing, food, and cultural advantages. As a group, they are significantly less apt to have parents demonstrating competence and concern for their welfare. They have known a higher incidence of disorganization.

Interesting and fundamental questions, as a consequence must be raised. If successful students are produced in the main by homes marked

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be ed by economic and emotional security, to what extent are unsuccessful students produced by broken homes? Would there be a startling increase in the number of successful students were society to spend a greater portion of its wealth on the disorganized and impoverished family? What needs to be done in expanded social services, improved housing, and more penetrating laws? Are we doomed to a continual assignment of slow students to psychologists, special classes, low ability groups, remedial teachers—an everlasting mopping of the floor without bothering to turn off the faucet? If these are questions worth answering, our country may find itself deciding that there cannot be good education without good homes; that it cannot afford in an area of automation to write off millions of unskilled graduates as "can't learn"; that, in terms of human resources, we are losing most of a generation who never approach their potential.

Busy teachers who voluntarily take on research are trying to meet problems head-on. The teachers at Furness know that the conclusions reached in a study such as theirs need to be checked many times. They know that other important questions await answers such as: What is the emotional development of successful students? What would a study of paired successful and unsuccessful students reveal? Can a predictive instrument be devised for teenagers?

But some things have been gained. Vision has been widened and a desire to learn more has been strengthened. Most of all, there is a greater understanding of the backgrounds of students. The Furness staff have trod one more step along the way to more effective teaching, and yet their task has just begun.

The Junior High School Grades

The Junior High-School Grades in the Six-Year High School

WILLIAM T. GRUHN, ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS,
J. LLOYD TRUMP, and VIRGINIA ROE

INTRODUCTION

HY study the junior high-school grades in the junior-senior high school? Here are some reasons: (1) the number of combined junior-senior high schools is increasing, particularly in areas of low population density or in suburban places; (2) practically no data are now available on the administration of the first three grades of six-year schools; (3) the administrators of many six-year schools say that the program and services in their junior high-school grades are in need of some attention.

Recent data compiled by Dr. Edmund A. Ford of the U.S. Office of Education show that 42% of all secondary schools in 1959 were six-year schools. This figure was 5% in 1920 and 36% in 1952. One third, 32% to be exact, of all secondary-school students in the United States are enrolled in six-year high schools. Therefore, what happens to the students in the junior high-school grades in the six-year high schools is of great significance.

Three specific questions are dealt with in this study:

1. What are present provisions for the junior high-school grades in combined junior-senior high schools?

2. What administrative practices do the principals of combined junior-senior high schools consider most effective for the junior high-school grades?

3. What administrative practices do specialists in secondary education, other than principals, consider most effective for the junior high-school grades within the framework of a combined junior-senior high school?

William T. Gruhn, Professor of Education, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn., is Chairman, NASSP Committee on Junior High-School Education; Ellsworth Tompkins is Executive Secretary; J. Lloyd Trump is Associate Secretary and Secretary of the Junior High-School Committee; and Virginia Roe is a member of the Staff—the last three persons are NASSP Staff Members.

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PROCEDURE

This report is based on a questionnaire sent to 4,260 principals by the NASSP Committee on Junior High-School Education in November 1958. The questionnaire requested two kinds of basic information on the junior high-school grades of the six-year high school: (1) information on present practices; (2) information on practices which the principal considered most desirable for his school.

A total of 2,549 replies were received, 2,120 usable, from the 4,260 questionnaires sent out. Change in type of school organization was the commonest single reason for unused responses. For example, 68 schools had become 4-year high schools (9-12), 31 had become senior high schools (10-12), 18 had become junior high schools (7-9), and others had been consolidated out of existence.

This report includes only those schools having grades 7-12. Table 1 shows the distribution of responding schools by state and by size of enrollment.

A second part of the study is concerned with the judgment of specialists in secondary education—state department officers, professors of education, directors of secondary education in school systems—on the administrative practices believed to be most effective in providing a satisfactory program in the junior high-school grades. Table 2 shows the kinds of specialists whose viewpoints are included in the text of this summary report.

The comments on practices in the responding schools are summarized in the following sections of the report. Also summarized are the opinions of secondary education specialists as they reacted to the different practices. The summary of practices and comments is presented in brief form in the interest of economy of time and space for all concerned. Readers wishing additional data which may be available regarding some specific practice are invited to write J. Lloyd Trump, Associate Secretary of the NASSP.

For the convenience of readers, all of the tables are grouped at the conclusion of the report. Only reference is made to the tables in connection with questions regarding practices as shown in subsequent divisions of the paper.

PRACTICES CONCERNING ADMINISTRATION

What Is the Administrative Philosophy Concerning the Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 3.)

The principals were asked to indicate practices and their points of view concerning the desirability of separating the school into junior and senior high-school units. In 29 per cent of the schools, it is the present practice to have no separation between the junior and senior high-school units. The policy of administering the two units as one school is far more prevalent in schools with small enrollments than in the large schools. The most common practice, however, is to administer the school as one unit,

but with separation of some activities for the junior and senior high-school

grades.

The preferred practice of the principals, however, is quite different from the present practice. Thirty-nine per cent of the principals indicated that, if they had their choice, they would make every effort to administer the school with separate junior and senior high-school units. Even in the small schools, the preference among principals was strong for separate junior and senior high-school units.

Secondary education specialists agreed with the principals that separation of units is desirable. Only eight of 120 believed that every effort should be made to administer the school as a unit. Those who favored separate junior and senior high-school units are almost equally divided on whether there should be complete separation or separation of some

parts of the program.

What Is the Building Arrangement for Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 4.)

Whether junior or senior high-school grades are assigned to separate parts of the school building will depend, of course, to some extent upon the arrangement of the building. In 35 per cent of the schools, it is the present practice to assign the junior and senior high-school units to separate parts of the building.

The majority of the principals responding (57 per cent), preferred assigning the two units to separate parts of the building. Even in the small schools, the preference of principals strongly favored the assign-

ment of the two units to different parts of the building.

Most of the secondary education specialists recommended the assignment of the junior and senior high-school grades to separate parts of the building. Eighty-five of the 120 specialists checked separation as the recommended practice while only thirteen believed that no attempt should be made to separate the two units.

How Is the Administrative Staff Assigned to Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 5.)

In practically all the schools, the same administrative staff is responsible for both the junior and senior high-school units. In the larger schools, however, it is fairly common to have an assistant principal either for the junior high school or for both the junior and senior high-school units.

The practice preferred by principals, however, is quite different from the present practice. Principals clearly favored having either an assistant principal for each of the school units, or an assistant principal for the

junior high-school unit.

About 60 per cent of the specialists in secondary education recommended that there be one principal for both units, with different assistant principals assigned to junior and senior high-school units. A substantial minority, about 18 per cent, favored having all of the administrative staff responsible for both junior and senior high-school units.

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How Are Administrative Offices Arranged for Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 6.)

The usual practice is to have one suite of administrative offices used by both the junior and senior high-school units. In schools with an enrollment of more than 500 pupils, separate administrative offices are occasionally provided for the junior and the senior high-school units.

Although most of the principals favored one administrative office for both school units, this preference was not nearly so prevalent as the present practice. In fact, 30 per cent of the principals responding indicated that they would prefer to have separate administrative offices for the junior and senior high schools. Even among the principals of small schools, quite a large percentage indicated a preference for separate administrative offices.

The specialists were almost equally divided on the issue of arrangement of administrative offices. Exactly one half favored one administrative office for both junior and senior high school. Fifty-six of the remaining 60 favored separate administrative offices for junior and senior high units, with the remaining suggesting a variety of other arrangements. Apparently here is an area of administration concerning which considerable additional thought needs to be given. Which type of organization is likely to produce best services for students? What effects does separation have on communication, cost, and other factors?

How Is the Bell Schedule Arranged for Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 7.)

One bell schedule serves both the junior and senior high-school units in the great majority of schools. Even in the very largest schools, the percentage is above 90 who use the same bell schedule for both.

Only 58 per cent of the principals clearly preferred the present practice of the same bell schedule for both units. About one fourth of the principals apparently were undecided on the issue, while 18 per cent favored a different bell schedule for the two units.

One half of the secondary education specialists favored a different bell schedule for junior and senior high-school units. The balance of the group either favored the same bell schedule or only very slight modifications. The fact that the group was divided almost in half on this issue indicates desirability of much further study and discussion on this point.

What Is the Practice with Respect to Pupil Personnel Records? (Table 8.)

The prevailing practice with respect to personnel records is to provide cumulative records which are continuous for all grades from the kindergarten through the twelfth. In approximately one fourth of the schools, however, the cumulative records are continuous only for grades seven to twelve.

The practice of having continuous cumulative records for the entire school career of the child is in harmony with that usually recommended

by specialists in school administration. It is, therefore, not surprising that this is the usual practice in combined junior-senior high schools.

Actually only thirteen of the 120 specialists in secondary education recommended that cumulative records be cumulative only for grades 7-12. Practically all of them urged strongly that cumulative records be continuous for grades K-12.

PRACTICES CONCERNING THE PROFESSIONAL STAFF

How Are Teachers Assigned to Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 9.)

Although the majority of the schools do not assign teachers specifically to either the junior or senior high-school units, there is quite a difference in this practice between the small schools and the medium-size and large schools. For the small schools, it is apparently advantageous to have many of the teachers assigned to a given subject in both the junior and senior high-school units. In fact, to do otherwise might be difficult, if not impossible. However, in schools with an enrollment of more than 500 pupils, a majority assign teachers specifically either to the senior or to the junior high-school unit.

The preferred practice with respect to the assignment of teachers differs quite sharply from the present practice. The great majority of the principals indicated that they would definitely prefer to have teachers assigned either to the junior or to the senior high-school units, rather than to both. The preference for the separate assignment of teachers was almost as strong among the principals of the small schools as of the medium-size and large schools.

About three fourths of the specialists recommended that teachers be assigned specifically either to junior or senior high-school units, but not to both. Fewer than 10 per cent recommended that deliberate efforts be undertaken to cross the two unit lines in making assignments, possibly for reasons of articulation. The remaining specialists did not believe that it mattered very much whether teachers were assigned with reference to either of the units.

How Are Department Heads Assigned? (Table 10.)

The prevailing practice is either to have the department heads assigned to both junior and senior high-school units, or not to have department heads at all. Only a small proportion of the schools have separate department heads for the junior and senior high-school units. Apparently, there is little relationship between the practice concerning department heads and the enrollment of the school.

Although this group is not in the majority, a considerable proportion of principals indicated that they would prefer to have separate department heads for the junior and senior high-school units. This preference was rather significant because such a relatively small number at present do follow the practice of having separate department heads for the two

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school units. Apparently most of the principals also preferred to have department heads. Only a small proportion indicated a preference for not having department heads in the school at all.

One fourth of the secondary education specialists, however, recommended no department heads for either junior or senior high units. The majority of the respondents, 51 of 120, preferred the same department heads for both junior and senior high-school units. Only 17 recommended separate department heads for junior and senior high-school units, while 10 suggested department heads only for the senior high unit with none for junior high school. Principals and specialists did not agree on the question of the assignment of department heads.

How Is the School Nurse Assigned to Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 11.)

It is almost the universal practice for the school nurse to be assigned to both the junior and senior high-school units. In fact, only 15 schools indicated that it was the practice to have separate nurses for the junior and senior high-school units. Incidentally, a considerable number of schools still have no school nurse. Although the percentage was higher among the small schools, even some of the medium-size and large schools did not have a nurse.

Although the preference was strongly for having the same nursing staff assigned to both junior and senior high-school units, quite a number of the principals did indicate a preference for separateness for the two units. Significantly, not one principal indicated a preference for not having a nurse in the building.

Almost 80 per cent of the specialists recommended the same nurse for both junior and senior high units. One sixth of the remainder recommended separateness for junior and senior high units and three persons suggested a nursing staff serving all grades in the school system.

How Is the Coaching Staff for Athletics Assigned? (Table 12.)

Although the prevailing practice is to have one coaching staff for both the junior and the senior high-school units, a considerable proportion of the schools indicated that they have one director of athletics for the entire school, but separate coaching staffs for the two units. This is particularly true, as one might expect, in the medium-size and large schools.

The principals responding clearly indicated a preference, however, for having one director of athletics, but with separate coaching staffs for the junior and senior high-school units. Even the principals of the small schools find this practice preferable to that of having one coaching staff. Quite a few principals also indicated that they would consider it desirable to have completely separate staffs for the junior and senior high schools. The preference was strong, however, for having one director of athletics for both the junior and the senior high-school programs.

Two thirds of the specialists recommended one director of athletics with separate coaching staff for junior and senior high-school units. An

additional 20 per cent recommended completely separate coaching staffs for junior and senior high-school grades. Obviously, the clear majority recommended separate coaching staffs.

How Is the Guidance Staff Assigned to the Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 13.)

Most six-grade schools reported having the same guidance staff for both junior and senior high-school units. Only in the larger schools occasionally was there one director of guidance, but with different counselors for the junior and senior high-school units.

The preference of principals with respect to the assignment of the guidance staff was clearly at variance with the present practice. The majority would prefer to have one director of guidance, but with different counselors for the junior and senior high-school units. Some of them, although the number is not large, would prefer to have completely separate guidance staffs for the two school units. It is significant that although 78 schools have no guidance staff, no principal indicated a preference for this situation.

Although 27 of the 120 secondary education specialists recommended the same guidance staff for both junior and senior high-school units, a considerable majority (82) recommended one director of guidance, but different counselors for junior and senior high school. Only 10 recommended completely separate guidance staffs for junior and senior units of the six-year school.

What Is the Practice for Faculty Meetings for the Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 14.)

The usual policy in junior-senior high schools is to have faculty meetings which include the teachers from both the junior and high-school units. Quite a few respondents indicated that they have both separate and joint meetings, but only a very few schools scheduled completely separate faculty meetings for the two school units.

The principals indicated clearly, however, that they would prefer the practice of having both separate and joint meetings for junior and senior high-school teachers. In other words, they apparently preferred to have separate meetings more frequently than is now the practice in their schools. There seems to be the feeling on the part of the principals, however, not to separate the faculties into two completely distinct parts. Only a small number of principals indicated a preference for completely separate faculty meetings for the junior and senior high-school teachers.

The great majority of the specialists, eighty-six, recommended a combination of separate and joint faculty meetings. Obviously, some topics are of interest to both groups, while others primarily concern teachers in the junior or senior high-school grades. Only thirteen suggested that ordinarily faculty meetings for junior and senior high-school teachers should be separate.

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What Is the Practice for Salary Schedules of Teachers in the Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 15.)

The practice with respect to salary schedules for teachers in the junior and senior high-school units shows that there is considerable agreement between present practice and the practice preferred by principals. In fact, in practically all schools, the present salary schedule was the same for both junior and senior high-school teachers. Very few of the principals indicated that they would prefer to have it otherwise.

The specialists were more in agreement on this issue than any other in the entire inquiry form. Only one person suggested that the salary schedule should be higher for senior than junior high-school teachers. All of the others agreed that the salary schedule should be the same for both groups.

What Is the Practice for the Daily or Weekly Class Load for Teachers in Junior and Senior High Schools? (Table 16.)

Here again there is close agreement between the prevailing practice in junior-senior high schools and the practice preferred by the responding principals. The great majority of the schools have a class load which is the same for both senior and junior high-school teachers. Not many of the principals would like to have it otherwise.

The specialists also agree, 107 of them, that the class load should be the same for senior and junior high teachers. Only eight disagreed and five were apparently uncertain.

What Is the Average Class Size in the Junior High School as Compared with the Senior High-School Unit? (Table 17.)

In a considerable proportion of the schools, the average class size in the junior high school is larger than in the senior high school. Although this practice is in the minority, it is significant that such a large percentage of schools have a different policy with respect to class size in the two school units.

The preference of principals was strongly for having the average class size the same in both the junior and senior high-school units. Even so, quite a number of principals felt that the class size in the junior high school could well be larger than in the senior high school.

Four fifths of the specialists believed that the average class size should be about the same for both junior and senior units. Only 19 of the 120 recommended smaller classes in the senior high school.

PRACTICES CONCERNING THE CURRICULUM

What Is the Practice Concerning Elective Offerings in the Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 18.)

Elective offerings in the academic subjects are usually provided in grades 9 through 12. In more than a third of the schools, however, such elective offerings were given only in grades 10 through 12. Not many schools offered electives in all grades.

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The practice preferred by principals differed from the present practice primarily in one respect; namely, quite a few of them preferred to offer electives in the academic subjects in all of the grades in the junior and senior high-school units. That was the point of view of principals in the small as well as in the medium-size and large schools.

The specialists were not in agreement on this point. One half felt that electives of academic subjects should be offered in grades 9-12. One fifth urged electives in all grades. Twelve per cent would limit electives to grades 10-12. Ten per cent recommended other practices.

What Is the Practice Concerning the Number of Study Periods Weekly in the Junior and Senior High School? (Table 19.)

The existing practice in the majority of the schools is to have approximately the same number of study periods weekly in both the junior and senior high-school units. In quite a few schools, however, there were more study periods in the senior than in the junior high school.

The preferred practice by principals was not greatly different from the practice which is now being followed. In one respect, however, there was a difference. Quite a few of the principals preferred to have no study periods in either the junior or senior high-school units.

The specialists were in complete disagreement on the matter of study periods. They were almost equally divided among three alternatives: No study periods in either junior or senior high school, more study periods in senior than in junior, or approximately the same number of study periods in the two units. Obviously this is an area wherein a transition in thinking is occurring. Probably the conventional study period is on its way out as a part of the educational program in both junior and senior units.

What Is the Practice Concerning Home Work in the Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 20.)

Students are expected to do home work in all grades of the juniorsenior high school. The most common practice is to increase home work gradually, starting in the seventh grade and continuing through the senior high school. In a large percentage of schools, however, the approximate amount of home work is the same for both junior and senior high schools.

Principals quite clearly indicated a preference for starting home work in the seventh grade and gradually increasing it through the junior and senior high schools. That was the opinion of 58 per cent of the principals. Principals of large high schools were even more emphatic on this point.

The specialists were even more favorable for a gradual increase in home work starting in grade 7. Four fifths of them recommended that procedure. Only 3 out of 120 did not approve of home work in the lower grades of the six-year high school.

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What Is the Practice with Respect to the Use of the School Library for the Junior and Senior High-School Units? (Table 21.)

The policy in practically all of the schools is to give the junior and senior high schools equal access to the library. Furthermore, this is the practice which is preferred by the majority of the responding principals. However, a large number of the principals would like to have separate libraries for the senior and junior high-school units.

Nearly 30 per cent of the specialists also recommended separate junior and senior high-school libraries in the six-year school. The vast majority, however, urged a common library with equal access on the part of all students.

What Is the Marking System? (Table 22.)

It is the usual practice to have the same marking system in both the junior and senior high-school units. In fact, there were only a few schools that do not follow this practice. The preference of principals likewise was to employ the same marking practice for the two school units. Three fourths of the specialists also agreed.

What Is the Practice with Respect to Remedial, Clinical, or Special Instruction in Reading? (Table 23.)

Special help in reading is provided only in the junior high-school grades in a considerable majority of the schools. This is in sharp conflict with the preferences indicated by the principals of junior-senior high schools. The principals indicated overwhelmingly that the believed special help in reading should be provided in both the junior and senior high-school units. This point of view is clearly in harmony with the recommendations of reading specialists and leaders in secondary education in recent years.

All but four of the 120 secondary education specialists recommended strongly that special help in reading should be provided in both junior and senior high-school sections. Most persons agreed that pupils should be given help in reading as long as they continued in the secondary school.

PRACTICES FOR EXTRACLASS ACTIVITIES

What Provision Is Made for Interscholastic Athletics? (Table 24.)

Most schools scheduled separate junior and senior high-school interscholastic athletic teams. Only a few schools limited interscholastic competition to the senior high-school grades.

The practice of having separate junior and senior high-school teams was also preferred by the great majority of principals. However, quite a few principals indicated a preference for having only senior high-school interscholastic competition or they did not answer the question. This might indicate that some of the principals of junior-senior high schools were not happy with interscholastic competition at the junior high-school level. This number was, however, clearly in the minority.

A close vote of 61 to 58 of the specialists favored provisions for senior high-school interscholastic athletic teams only. Who is right, the specialists or the principals?

What Interscholastic Teams Are Provided for the Junior High-School Units in Those Schools Which Have Interscholastic Competition at This Level? (Table 25.)

Basketball is by far the most popular sport for interscholastic competition in the junior high-school grades. Football, baseball, and track are offered in quite a few schools, but each of these sports is offered in less than one half the schools which provide interscholastic junior high-school competition. Only a few schools offer such sports as touch foot-

ball, swimming, golf, tennis, and wrestling.

The principals were not given an opportunity to recommend which interscholastic teams should be provided in the junior high-school grades, but the secondary education specialists were asked their opinion with respect to which teams should be organized. Only 58 of 120 believed there should be interscholastic junior high-school teams of any kind. Considerable disagreement existed with respect to which teams. Fortyone said basketball, 39 track, and 30 indicated baseball should be provided. Fewer than one half suggested softball, touch football, swimming, and tennis. A few mentioned regular football, golf, and wrestling.

What Pupils May Participate on Senior High-School Interscholastic Teams? (Table 26.)

By far the most prevailing practice is to permit participation of pupils in grades 9 through 12 on the senior high-school interscholastic teams. Almost one fifth, however, limited participation to pupils only in grades 10-12. This practice is even more prevalent in the large schools.

A considerable proportion of the principals indicated that they would prefer to limit participation on senior high-school interscholastic teams to pupils in grades 10 through 12. However, forty-five per cent of the principals favored participation on interscholastic senior high-school teams for pupils in the upper four grades.

Slightly more than one half of the specialists would limit participation to pupils in grades 10-12. Forty-eight of the 120 would allow ninth-grade students also to participate on senior high interscholastic teams.

What Provision Is Made for Intramural Athletics? (Table 27.)

In the majority of schools, provision is made for intramural athletics with separate teams for the junior and senior high-school units. In fully one fourth of the schools, however, there is no planned program of intramural athletics at either the junior or senior high-school levels.

The principals indicate clearly that they are in favor of intramural athletics with separate junior and senior high-school teams. In fact, hardly any principals indicate preferences for other practices. In other words, the principals participating in this study seem to favor a broad

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program of intramural athletics at all grade levels, but with provisions for separate programs in the junior and senior high-school units.

The specialists agree with the principals that provision should be made for separate junior and senior high intramural athletic teams. Only four of 120 differed from the recommendation in that they suggested combined junior and senior high teams.

What Provision Is Made for Junior High-School Teams to Use the Gymnasium and Athletic Fields? (Table 28.)

There apparently is considerable conflict between the present and the preferred practices in the use of the gymnasium and athletic fields. Although 49 per cent of the principals indicate that they try to give equal access to both the senior and junior high-school units to the gymnasium and athletic fields, almost as many principals report that the senior high school is definitely given the preference.

Principals feel, however, that the present practice is not a desirable one. Most of the principals would give the junior and senior high schools equal access to the gymnasium and athletic fields, while a large number prefer to have separate athletic facilities for the two school units. Only a relatively small percentage of the principals feel that preference in the use of athletic facilities should be given to the senior high-school unit.

The specialists agreed with the principals. More than one half of the specialists said that the junior and senior high-school units should have equal access to the gymnasium and athletic fields. Almost as many recommended what is probably a more realistic solution to the problem; namely, that each of the units have its own gymnasium and athletic fields.

What Is the Practice with Respect to School Assemblies? (Table 29.)

The prevailing practice is to have both the senior and junior high-school pupils attend most of the assemblies together. In only one fourth of the schools is it now the policy to have separate assemblies for the two school units.

A majority of the principals, however, indicated that they believed it is better to have most assemblies separate for the junior and senior highschool pupils. The preference for separate assemblies was strongest in the medium-size and large schools.

The specialists overwhelmingly recommended separate assemblies for junior and senior high-school units. Only 18 of 120 suggested that ordinarily the assemblies include both units.

What Is the Practice with Respect to School Clubs? (Table 30.)

The policy in most of the schools is to have separate clubs for junior and senior high-school pupils. Furthermore, the great majority of the principals believed that this is a desirable practice. Fourth fifths of the specialists agreed.

What Is the Practice with Respect to the Student Council? (Table 31.) Practice varies widely with respect to membership in the student council from the junior and senior high-school units. The most common prac-

tice is to have one student council with equal representation from both the junior and senior high-school units. However, a large number of schools have one student council, but with larger representation from the senior high-school grades. Furthermore, many schools have separate student councils.

The preference of the principals was quite evenly divided on practices concerning the student council. Nearly one half indicated a preference for one student council for the entire school, but they were divided in their opinion concerning the amount of representation the junior high school should have. Many principals, however, preferred separate student councils. Likewise, it is clear that quite a few principals feel that the junior high-school pupils should be given more responsibility in the

student council than is the present practice.

The secondary education specialists looked at the matter somewhat differently. One half of them believed that separate student councils for the junior and senior high-school units should be organized. Almost as many favored one student council with equal representation for junior and senior high-school pupils. Only a very few, 14 out of 120, favored more representation for senior than junior high-school students. Obviously, a strong feeling exists that junior high-school-age students should have active participation in student council activities in a way that will insure freedom from domination by the senior high-school students.

What Is the Practice Regarding the School Newspaper? (Table 32.)

Usually one school newspaper serves both the junior and senior high-school units. Furthermore, this is the practice that was preferred by the great majority of principals and the secondary education specialists. Although they were in the minority, quite a few principals indicated that they would prefer separate school papers for the junior and the senior high-school units. Forty-one of 120 specialists also would prefer separate newspapers.

What Is the Practice Regarding the School Yearbook? (Table 33.)

Most schools have one yearbook for both the junior and senior highschool units. The majority of principals felt that this is a desirable practice. Very few wanted a separate junior high yearbook. The specialists agreed with the principals.

What Is the Practice Concerning Attendance at School Social Functions? (Table 34.)

Varied policies are followed concerning attendance of junior and senior high-school pupils at school social functions. The practice in 38 per cent of the schools is to have some social functions which pupils from both school units may attend, but to schedule other functions separately for the two units. Almost as many schools, however, have both junior and senior high-school pupils ordinarily attend the same social functions. Completely separate social functions for the junior and senior high-school groups are held in 24 per cent of the schools.

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Two thirds of the principals preferred some or complete separation in the attendance of pupils from the two school units at social functions. The strongest preference of principals was to have some social functions attended by both groups, but with other functions separate. Only 11 per cent of the principals preferred to have both junior and senior high-school pupils regularly attend the same social functions. The principals who preferred the combined social functions were predominantly in schools with small enrollments.

All but three of the 120 secondary education specialists favored scheduling social functions either completely separate for junior and senior high-school students or having at least part of the functions separately. Actually there was an exact division of preference between the two ideas of completely separate or partially separate. The idea that functions should regularly be attended by both groups was almost completely opposed.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

This study concerns the junior high-school grades in the six-year high school. Reports and opinions regarding present and preferred practices in the administration of these schools were obtained from a questionnaire completed by 2,120 principals of schools. The opinions of 120 secondary education specialists regarding desirable practices in these schools were also obtained through a questionnaire. The more significant findings and recommendations derived from an analysis of these data are as follows:

1. Although the combined junior-senior high school should be organized and administered as one school, definite divisions into junior and senior high-school units should be made. Current practice is in that direction. The preponderance of opinion of principals and secondary specialists recommended that organization even more emphatically.

2. Administrative and supervisory unity for the six grades should be provided by one principal, one director of guidance, one director of athletics, and by other key administrative-supervisory staff members.

3. The professional staff, other than the key administrative and supervisory staff, should be assigned to separate junior and senior high-school units within the six-year secondary school.

4. The two school units should be assigned largely to different parts of the school plant and site although there should ordinarily be one suite of administrative offices for both school units.

Although some meetings of the professional staff should be scheduled for the school as a whole, others should be separate for each unit.

6. The responsibilities and the conditions of employment of the professional staff in such matters as salaries, teaching loads, and average class size should be the same for the junior and senior high-school units.

7. The junior and senior high-school units should be given equal consideration in the assignment of building facilities, provision of professional staff, and in the development of the instructional program.

8. In some administrative practices, such as those concerned with the bell schedule and marking system, there should be no differences for the two units. In others, however, such as home work, study periods, and elective offerings, the provisions should be modified as pupils go from the junior to the senior high-school grades.

9. Provision should be made in most school activities for separate programs for the junior and senior high-school units. Some exceptions, for example, in the case of the school yearbook, may be desirable. Practices and opinions with respect to the student council differ somewhat although there is agreement that students in the junior high-school grades should be equally represented with those from the senior high unit.

10. The extent to which the six-grade school should be divided into junior and senior high-school units depends to a large degree on the total enrollment of the school. The separation of the staff, the building, the activities, and the program for the two school units is much more complete in larger than in medium-size and small schools. Actually in the smaller schools there is comparatively little division into junior and senior high-school activities.

11. Some evidence indicates that students in the junior high-school grades in the six-year high school receive less attention, have more difficulty in obtaining use of facilities, and, except for provision of special help in reading, are given less attention than the students in the senior high-school grades.

12. Teachers and administrators in six-year high schools need to reexamine critically the services provided students enrolled in the junior high-school grades in such schools. Although there is no evidence that the needs of early adolescent youth cannot be served effectively in such schools, the danger exists that proportionately more attention may be given to students in the upper grades unless special care is taken. Most persons feel that this care will more likely be given if the units are treated separately in the manner suggested in the foregoing statements.

13. The present study dealt largely with what may be regarded as conventional school practices. Attention was given only indirectly to such matters as better utilization of staff, newer types of curriculum organization and scheduling, improved use of modern technology in teaching, and increased and more effective use of educational facilities. However, there is no reason to suspect the findings would be different if additional questions along the foregoing lines had been included in the inquiry form.

14. The rapid growth in numbers of six-year high schools in the United States in recent years gives greater urgency to the need for studies such as reported in this instance.

15. The Junior High-School Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals invites comments and suggestions for future studies and activities in its efforts to improve further educational opportunities for young adolescents in the junior high-school grades.

TABLE 1. Number of Schools Responding, by State and Enrollment

State	0-149	150-299	300-499	500-749	750-999	Over 1,000	Total
Alabama		8	7	8	4	5	32
Arizona					1		1
Arkansas	19	33	10	11	2	1	76
California	2	5	4	6	1	9	27
Colorado	13	8	2	3	1		27
Connecticut	1	3	10	7	1	4	26
Delaware		4	6	3	4	1	18
Florida	2		10	14	5	9	40
Georgia		1	1	1			3
Idaho	1		5	1			7
Illinois		2	1	2		1	6
Indiana	62	101	37	15	.13	9	237
Iowa	15	12	5			1	33
Kansas	2	4	4	2	2	î î	15
Kentucky	1	15	4	6	1	5	32
Lousiana		2		4	î	2	9
Maine	16	9	2	-	-	_	27
Maryland	3	9	23	16	6	13	70
Massachusetts	1	10	19	18	6	8	62
Michigan	14	22	53	32	7	15	143
Minnesota	29	92	65	21	7	9	223
Mississippi	1	1	3	4	2	1	12
Missouri	i	6	8	4	3	î	23
Nebraska	2	3	2	3	3	1	11
Nevada	ī	0	2	3		1	1
New Hampshire	î	7	4	3 -		1	16
New Jersey			1	8	4	8	21
New Mexico	1	2	1	1	4	o	5
New York	1	11	36	32	15	28	122
North Carolina		11	4	32	2		
North Dakota	4	5	1	2	2	3	9
	-	-	-		00	25	12
Ohio	31	69	50	40	22	27	239
Oklahoma	2	9	10	2		7	30
Oregon	1		1	0.00			2
Pennsylvania	3	25	65	87	61	65	306
Rhode Island				1		1	2
South Carolina					1		1
Tennessee	1	3	5	7	1	8	25
Texas		1	-			1	2
Utah	9	11	5	2			27
Vermont	5	8	2			4	19
Virginia		1		2	1	1	5
Washington		1	4	3	2	2	12
West Virginia	4	27	25	21	10	7	94
Wisconsin		1				4	5
Wyoming	2	1	1		1		5
TOTAL	250	532	496	392	187	263	2,120

TABLE 2. Number and Kinds of Secondary Education Specialists Indicating Preference for Certain Administrative Practices in Junior-Senior High Schools

State	State Departments of Education	University Professors	Superintendents and Asst. Supt.	Employees of Prof. Organ
Alabama	1	1	1	
Arizona	1			
Arkansas	1			
California	2	4	2	1
Colorado	1	i	_	
Connecticut	2	A		
Delaware	1	*		
District of Columbia				4
Florida	1	1	1	4
	1	1	1	1
Georgia	1			1
Illinois		4		
Indiana		3		
Iowa	1	1		
Kansas	1		1	
Kentucky	1			
Louisiana		1		
Maine	1	1		
Maryland	1	1	1	
Massachusetts	1	2		
Michigan	1	7		1
Minnesota		2		•
Mississippi	1	-		
Missouri	î		1	
	1		1	
Montana		1		
Nebraska		1		
New Hampshire	1	1		
New Jersey				
New Mexico		1		
New York		6	1	
North Carolina	1	1		
North Dakota			1	
Ohio	1		3	
Oklahoma	1	1	1	
Oregon	2	1	1	
Pennsylvania	2	3		
Rhode Island	ī	•		
South Dakota	î			
	1	1		
Tennessee	1	4	1	
Texas		4	1	
Vermont	1	1		
Virginia	1		1	
Washington			1	
West Virginia			1	
Wisconsin		2	4	
Wyoming		1		
TOTAL	33	58	22	7=120

TABLE 3. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Separation of Units, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cen of Tota
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE No separation between units Separate units. Some separation No response.	91 19 106	258 39 245	115 52 279	90 61 206	30 39 100	36 60 143	620 270 1,079 151	29 13 51 7
B.	PREFERRED PRACTICE No separation between units Separate units. Some separation. No response.	43 74 66	90 178 165	58 201 147	42 176 105	17 85 52	27 117 80	277 831 615 397	13 39 29 19

TABLE 4. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Building Use, by Enrollment

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent of Total
A. PRESENT PRACTICE Junior and senior high grades assigned to separate parts of the building * Junior and senior high grades assigned to building with-	37	103	176	197	94	140	747	35
out attempt to separate them	192	362	214	92	36	52	948 425	45 20
Junior and senior high grades assigned to building with-	115	290	291	226	117	171	1,210	57
out attempt to separate them	58	112	56	21	10	20	277 633	13 30

*Was the building designed to separate the two units? Yes 170 No 508

TABLE 5. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Assigning Administrative Staff, by Enrollment

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent of Total
A. PRESENT PRACTICE All administrative staff re-	220	463	404	300	145	180	1 712	81
sponsible for both units One principal for both units, but different assistant	220	463	404	300	143	100	1,712	01
principals for each unit One principal for both units, but an assistant principal	2	3	14	14	10	32	75	3
for junior high	3	8	26	32	20	32	121 212	6 10
B. PREFERRED PRACTICE All administrative staff re-								
sponsible for both units One principal for both units, but different assistant	73	169	112	80	39.	59	532	25
principals for each unit One principal for both units, but an assistant principal	41	108	101	120	70	110	550	26
for junior high	62	148	166	109	42	40	567 471	27 22

TABLE 6. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Administrative Offices, by Enrollment

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A. PRESENT PRACTICE One administrative office for both junior and senior high Separate administrative of-	241	514	459	243	161	197	1,815	86
fices for junior and senior high No response	2	9	22	39	29	41	142 163	6 8
B. PREFERRED PRACTICE One administrative office for both junior and senior high	121	268	212	159	71	106	937	44
Separate administrative of- fices for junior and senior high	57	151	175	71	96	88	638	30
No response							545	26

TABLE 7. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Bell Schedule, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cen
F	PRESENT PRACTICE Bell schedule same for both junior and senior high Bell schedule different for	242	517	469	358	176	237	1,999	94
	junior and senior high	3	13	33	27	15	18	109 12	5
	PREFERRED PRACTICE Bell schedule same for both								
B	junior and senior high Bell schedule different for	135	322	303	206	107	158	1,231	58
N	junior and senior high	38	84	81	92	40.	52	387 502	18 24

TABLE 8. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Pupil Personnel Records, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Cumulative records continu-								
	ous for grades K-12 Cumulative records continu-	180	378	361	270	141	175	1,505	70.9
	ous for grades 7-12 Separate cumulative records	38	111	118	96	39	61	463	21.9
	for grades 10-12 Separate cumulative records		1	1	2	1	2	7	.3
	for grades 9-12 No response	8	20	11	7	2	8	56 89	2.7 4.2
B.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Cumulative records continu-								
	ous for grades K-12 Cumulative records continu-	148	360	349	257	131	168	1,413	66
	ous for grades 7-12, Separate cumulative records	17	47	37	44	21	39	205	10
	for grades 10-12 Separate cumulative records	2	3	4	4	1	2	16	1
	for grades 9-12 No response	5	10	6	10	5	7	43 443	21

TABLE 9. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Assigning Teachers, by Enrollment

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cen of Tota
A. PRESENT PRACTICE Teachers assigned specifically to junior or senior high units	33	117	194	198	100	139	781	37
Teachers not assigned spe- cifically to junior or senior high units		369	249	141	62	86	1,101	52
No response		007	2.,,		02		238	11
B. PREFERRED PRACTICE Teachers assigned specifi- cally to junior or senior								
high units	111	283	311	258	130	161	1,254	59
high units No response	65	143	73	56	19	45	401 465	19 22

TABLE 10. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Department Heads, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Same department heads for junior and senior high units	106	205	172	168	87	153	891	42
	Separate department heads for junior and senior high	100	205	1/2	108	6/	153	071	46
	units Department heads only for	9	21	38	21	8	19	116	6
	senior high unit	9	23	22	23	5	13	95	4
	No department heads	103	252	220	157	79	63	874	41
	No response							144	7
В.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Same department heads for								
	junior and senior high units Separate department heads for junior and senior high	72	161	162	152	78	122	747	35
	units	46	140	138	108	49	57	538	25
	Department heads only for senior high unit	13	18	17	8	6	7	69	3
	No department heads	29	70	51	31	20	25	226	11
	No response							540	26

TABLE 11. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Assignment of School Nurse, by Size of Enrollment

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A. PRESENT PRACTICE Same nurse for junior and	101	207	225	2/0	440			
Separate nurses for junior and senior high units	121	287	325	269	150	10	1,369	65
No nurse	62	128	105	67	24	20	406 330	19 15
PREFERRED PRACTICE Same nurse for junior and								
senior high units Separate nurses for junior	123	295	317	248	120	163	1,266	59
and senior high units No response	13	29	27	37	24	.49	179 675	8 33

TABLE 12. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Assignment of Coaching Staff for Athletics, by Enrollment

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A. PRESENT PRACTICE One coaching staff for both junior and senior high units	154	346	254	212	89	117	1,172	55
One director of athletics but separate coaching staffs for junior and senior high units	48	121	182	137	78	109	675	32
Separate coaching staffs for junior and senior high units No response	27	50	39	24	14	24	178 95	8 5
B. PREFERRED PRACTICE One coaching staff for both junior and senior high units One director of athletics but	51	131	111	95	45	66	499	23
separate coaching staffs for junior and senior high units Separate coaching staffs for	86	214	216	161	87	117	881	42
junior and senior high units No response	45	78	62	60	21	38	304 436	14 21

TABLE 13. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Assigning Guidance Staff, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Same guidance staff for								
	junior and senior high One director of guidance, but different counselors	196	440	402	299	142	139	1,618	76
	for junior and senior high Separate guidance staffs for	8	25	35	35	30	82	215	10
	junior and senior high	1	7	5	15	4	31	63	3
	No guidance staff No response	14	25	18	13	6	2	78 146	7
В.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Same guidance staff for								
	junior and senior high One director of guidance, but different counselors	84	148	140	101	39	50	562	27
	for junior and senior high Separate guidance staffs for	77	224	232	187	100	142	962	45
	junior and senior high	14	27	29	30	22	39	161 435	7 21

TABLE 14. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Faculty Meetings, by Enrollment

0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent of Total
212	470	365	265	120	150	1,582	75
	8	21	20	8	19	76	4
22	45	87	81	52	84	371 91	17
RS	204	151	100	47	66	653	31
6	36	32	29	16	21	140	6
86	184	218	189	94	138	909 418	43
	212 22 85 6	149 299 212 470 8 22 45 85 204 6 36	149 299 499 212 470 365 8 21 22 45 87 85 204 151 6 36 32	149 299 499 749 212 470 365 265 8 21 20 22 45 87 81 85 204 151 100 6 36 32 29	149 299 499 749 999 212 470 365 265 120 8 21 20 8 22 45 87 81 52 85 204 151 100 47 6 36 32 29 16	149 299 499 749 999 7,000 212 470 365 265 120 150 8 21 20 8 19 22 45 87 81 52 84 85 204 151 100 47 66 6 36 32 29 16 21	149 299 499 749 999 1,000 Total 212 470 365 265 120 150 1,582 8 21 20 8 19 76 22 45 87 81 52 84 371 91 85 204 151 100 47 66 653 6 36 32 29 16 21 140 86 184 218 189 94 138 909

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TABLE 15. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Salary Schedules of Teachers, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Salary schedule higher for senior high than junior high teachers	20	18	6	5	2	3	54	3
	teachers	201	475	429	375	186	258	1,924 142	91 6
B.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Salary schedule higher for senior high than junior high teachers	13	23	19	10	7	. 6	78	4
	for junior and senior high teachers	156	391	342	308	150	222	1,569 473	74 22

TABLE 16. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Weekly Class Load for Teachers, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Class load lower for senior than for junior high teach-								
	Class load the same for senior	16	49	65	51	35	23	239	12
	and junior high teachers. No response	220	470	420	328	152	233	1,823 58	86
B.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Class load lower for senior than for junior high teach-								
	ers	13	25	29	25	9	14	115	5
	and iunior high teachers. No response.	153	387	367	292	153	211	1,563	74 21

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cen of Tota
A. PRESENT PRACTICE Average class size the same for junior and senior high	162	278	273	214	93	168	1,188	56
Average class size less in senior than junior high No response	79	242	212	161	94	95	883 49	42
B. PREFERRED PRACTICE Average class size the same	120	303	204	230	119	177	1 272	60
for junior and senior high Average class size less in	130	303	304	239	119	177	1,272	00
Senior than junior high No response	31	93	84	72	36	51	367 481	17 23

TABLE 18. Number of Schools Reporting Practices Concerning Elective Offerings, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent of Total
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Electives of academic sub- jects offered only in grades								
	10-12 Electives of academic sub-	90	150	102	61	23	24	450	21
	ject offered in grades 9-12 Electives of academic sub-		362	370	309	158	210	1,550	73
	jects offered in all grades. No response	7	3	2	12	7	12	43 77	2 4
B.	Electives of academic sub- jects offered only in grades			0.7		20	10	200	45.1
	Electives of academic sub-	46	111	87	45	20	19	328	15.5
	jects offered in grades 9-12 Electives of academic sub-		225	232	214	110	154	1,019	48
	jects offered in all grades. No response.	43	85	80	58	30	32	328 445	15.5 21

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TABLE 19. Number of Schools Reporting Practices on Study Periods, by Enrollment

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A. PRESENT PRACTICE Same number of study peri- ods weekly in junior and								
senior high	149	294	245	188	77	*95	1,048	49
than in junior high No study periods in junior	68	210	189	146	90	116	819	39
or senior high	16	16	37	26	12	23	130 123	6
B. PREFERRED PRACTICE Same number of study peri- ods weekly in junior and	93	198	156	129	55	65	700	22
senior high	73	190	150	129	39	03	700	33
than in junior high No study periods in junior	46	114	116	89	57	84	506	24
or senior high	28	83	104	70	31	54	370 544	17 26

TABLE 20. Number of Schools Reporting Practices Concerning Homework, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent of Total
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Regular homework in senior high, but not junior high. Approximately the same amount of homework in	1	6	5	5	1	7	25	1
	both junior and senior high. Gradual increase in home- work starting in grade 7,	155	305	238	153	76	71	998	47
	continuing through senior high	80	200	231	223	108	176	1,018 79	48
В.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Regular homework in senior high, but not junior high. Approximately the same amount of homework in	2	7	4	2	1	1	17	1
	both junior and senior high	63	135	97	74	39	37	445	21
	continuing through senior high	108	275	294	248	116	186	1,227 431	58 20

TABLE 21. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Use of the School Library, by Enrollment

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent of Total
A. PRESENT PRACTICE Junior and senior high given								
equal access to the library Senior high given preference	223	457	399	314	147	195	1,735	82
in access to the library Senjor high and junior high	10	42	54	42	21	22	191	9
each given its own library No response	5	16	24	20	18	42	125 69	6 3
B. PREFERRED PRACTICE Junior and senior high given equal access to the library	124	292	275	230	107	138	1,166	55
Senior high given preference in access to the library	4	14	6	8	6	3	41	2
Senior high and junior high		-				00		
each given its own library No response	50	116	124	90	48	82	510 403	24 19

TABLE 22. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for the Marking System, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cen of Tota
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE								
	Same marking system for junior and senior high Marking system for grades 10-12 different from grades	235	509	465	359	177	241	1,986	94
	7-9. Marking system for grades 9-12 different from grades	2	2	3	7	3	4	21	1
	7-8	5	12	18	19	8	11	73 40	3 2
В.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Same marking system for junior and senior high Marking system for grades	158	379	343	276	136	200	1,492	70
	10-12 different from grades 7-9 Marking system for grades	10	15	20	15	7	11	78	4
	9-12 different from grades 7-8.	11	18	22	24	10	10	95 455	5 21

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TABLE 23. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Special Reading Instruction, by Enrollment

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cen
A. PRESENT PRACTICE Special help in reading pro- vided in both junior and								
senior high Special help in reading pro-	69	121	122	98	55	95	560	26
vided only in senior high. Special help in reading pro-	3	3	6	5	4	7	28	1
vided only in junior high. No response	69	201	196	175	94	109	844 688	40 33
B. PREFERRED PRACTICE Special help in reading pro- vided in both junior and senior high	150	384	358	307	143	206	1,548	73
Special help in reading pro-								
vided only in senior high. Special help in reading pro-	1	2	4	4	4	2	17	1
vided only in junior high No response	7	23	24	12	8	13	87 468	22

TABLE 24. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Interscholastic Athletics, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cen of Tota
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Senior high teams only Separate junior and senior	37	79	105	73	34	54	382	18
	high teams	195	434	373	303	156	203	1,665 73	79 3
B.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Senior high teams only	21	43	58	43	18	41	224	10
	Separate junior and senior high teams	137	326	312	270	129	179	1,353 543	64 26

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TABLE 25. Percentage of Schools Reporting Practices for Interscholastic Athletic Teams in Junior High-School Grades, by Enrollment*

Author	0-1	149	150-	299	300-	499	500-	749	750-	999	1,0		Tota	al
Activity	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Football	32	13	166	31	213	43	214	55	123	65	174	66	922	42
Touch Football	19	8	44	8	42	9	30	8	15	8	20	8	170	8
Baseball	109	44	229	43	169	34	125	32	58	31	79	30	769	36
Basketball	221	90	471	90	412	83	327	83	159	85	214	81	1,804	85
Softball	41	17	89	17	62	13	47	12	22	12	26	10	287	14
Track	89	36	216	41	163	33	149	38	85	45	125	48	827	39
Swimming	3	1	7	1	9	2	6	1	5	3	17	7	47	2
Golf			10	2	13	3		4	9	5	16	6	62	3
Tennis	6	2	13	2	13	3	17	4	6	3	22	8	77	4
Wrestling	1		10	2	19	4	16	4	10	5	31	12	87	8
Number of different schools involved in each enrollment range	25	0	53	2	49	6	39	2	18	7	26	3	2,12	0

^{*}The percentages of schools are based on the number of schools responding to this question.

TABLE 26. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Participation on Senior High Interscholastic Teams, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cen
Ā.	PRESENT PRACTICE Pupils only in grades 10-12	23	64	73	79	57	83	379	18
	Pupils in grades 9-12 No response		445	387	291	126	164	1,621 120	76 6
В.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Pupils only in grades 10-12	49	118	131	131	79	113	621	29
	Pupils in grades 9-12 No response	115	271	221	183	66	103	959 540	45 26

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TABLE 27. Number of Schools Reporting Provision Made for Intramural Athletics, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cen of Tota
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Provision for senior high only	10	15	17	17	-	8	72	
	Provision for separate junior	10	13	17	17	5	0	72	4
	and senior high teams Provision for combined junior	81	221	245	222	121	171	1,061	50
	and senior high teams No planned intramural	40	73	62	36	13	18	242	11
	athletics	100	183	137	15	39	35	509 236	24 11
B.	PREFERRED PRACTICE								
	Provision for senior high only Provision for separate junior	5	5	2	1			13	1
	and senior high teams	128	353	339	280	138	204	1,442	68
	Provision for combined junior and senior high teams	26	35	28	19	11	9	128	6
	No planned intramural athletics	9	8	15	7	2	1	42 495	2

TABLE 28. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Athletic Facilities, by Enrollment

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent of Total
A. PRESENT PRACTICE Senior high given preference								
in use of gymnasium and athletic fields	81	265	207	168	99	111	931	44
equal access to gymnasium and athletic fields Junior and senior high each	159	240	249	189	82	118	1,037	49
given its own gymnasium and athletic fields No response	1	10	19	19	6.	19	74 78	3 4
B. PREFERRED PRACTICE Senior high given preference in use of gymnasium and								
athletic fields	18	48	32	27	15	13	153	7
and athletic fields Junior and senior high each	105	230	216	149	81	102	883	42
given its own gymnasium and athletic fields No response	51	141	145	137	68	105	647 437	30 21

TABLE 29. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for School Assemblies, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent of Total
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Assemblies ordinarily include both junior and senior high Assemblies ordinarily are	232	421	414	246	69	39	1,421	67
	separate for junior and senior high No response	7	19	55	116	114	207	518 181	24 9
B.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Assemblies ordinarily include both junior and senior high	116	275	188	95	27	23	724	34
	Assemblies ordinarily are separate for junior and senior high	58	142	186	208	127	193	914	43
	No response							482	23

TABLE 30. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for School Clubs, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Separate clubs for junior and								
	senior high Combined clubs for junior	98	285	325	274	153	212	1,347	64
	and senior high No response	87	16	99	61	21	24	308 465	14 22
B.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Separate clubs for junior and								
	senior high	113	303	307	263	140	199	1,325	62
	and senior high No response	30	71	43	61	9	14	228 567	11 27

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TABLE 31. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for the Student Council, by Enrollment

Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A. PRESENT PRACTICE One student council, with equal representation for								
junior and senior high One student council, with more representation for	99	247	216	171	78	79	890	42
one student council, with representation for senior	78	163	174	103	40	40	598	28
high only Separate student councils	18	33	25	17	8	11	112	5
for junior and senior high	1	18	45	76	60	124	324	15
No response	20	35	13	11	1	2	82 114	6
B. PREFERRED PRACTICE One student council, with equal representation for								
junior and senior high One student council, with more representation for	63	149	140	106	57	57	572	27
senior high	46	134	118	72	24	26	420	20
high only	6	9	11	1	1	2	30	1
for junior and senior high No response	39	89	120	141	76	136	601 497	28 24

TABLE 32. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for the School Newspaper, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cen
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Separate papers for junior								
	and senior high One paper for both junior	2	10	17	27	16	37	109	5
	and senior high One paper for senior high	173	405	362	296	146	205	1,587	75
	only	21	32	41	17	12	14	137	7
	No school newspaper No response	25	50	37	14	5	1	132 155	7 6 7
B.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Separate papers for junior								
	and senior high One paper for both junior	27	76	66	84	50	78	381	18
	and senior high One paper for senior high	116	300	276	217	98	137	1,144	54
	only	11	12	15	7	5	4	54 541	3 25

TABLE 33. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for the School Yearbook, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent of Tota
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Separate yearbooks for junior								
	and senior high One yearbook for both junior	1	3	4	4	4	3	19	1
	and senior high One yearbook for senior	171	408	377	308	149	195	1,608	76
	high only	28	51	64	60	32	52	287	13
	No yearbook	24	34	18	9	1		86 120	4
3.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Separate yearbooks for junior	8	20	12	14	8	15	77	4
	and senior high One yearbook for both junior	8	20	12	14	8	15	//	4
	and senior high One yearbook for senior	116	305	279	229	117	154	1,200	56
	high only	20	55	72	56	25	50	278 565	13 27

TABLE 34. Number of Schools Reporting Practices for Social Functions, by Enrollment

	Practice	0- 149	150- 299	300- 499	500- 749	750- 999	Over 1,000	Total	Per Cent
A.	PRESENT PRACTICE Social functions separate Social functions attended by	30	78	99	106	69	128	510	24
	both junior and senior high	110	207	174	106	37	31	665	31
	senior high	88	201	185	155	76	91	796 149	38 7
B.	PREFERRED PRACTICE Social functions separate for junior and senior high Social functions attended by both junior and senior	34	124	106	105	67	112	548	26
	high	41	75	64	33	12	15	240	11
	senior high	86	213	212	169	72	87	839 493	40 23

Some Interesting Practices

A Report on a Junior High-School Program for the Gifted

WILLIAM J. FERGUSON

PERHAPS the most significant trend in American secondary education today is the development of programs for gifted youth. In school systems throughout the nation, curricular experiments in this important area are being conducted. The interest of educators in finding better means of teaching superior boys and girls is expressed in professional journals, in convention agenda, in university courses and in-service training programs, in meetings of boards of education, and in sessions of state legislatures. This ferment of thought and discussion can well be a prelude to important educational advance.

The NASSP Spotlight carried a brief mention of a program for the gifted which had been developed at Paul Revere Junior High School in Los Angeles. The paragraph indicated that a bulletin describing that program was available on request. Within the next month the school received, from every state in the union, over 500 such requests. The widespread interest thus expressed in the plan for the gifted developed by one individual school has impelled me, as its principal, to write this article about our program.

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Let me say at the outset that we at Revere are under no illusion that we have arrived at the ultimate solution to the problem of how best to educate the intellectually superior pupils. We do feel, however, that we have made some discoveries and have come to some conclusions which are important enough to share with other educators. We believe that our program has succeeded in our own community; we are of the opinion that the techniques which we have used are adaptable for use elsewhere. Indeed, we are convinced that, should they be applied elsewhere, the principles which we have postulated might receive a validation which could lead to their general acceptance.

William J. Ferguson is Principal of the Paul Revere Junior High School (Enrollment, grades 7-9, 1,900), 1450 Allenford Avenue, Los Angeles 49, California.

At least, we hope to challenge the thinking of administrators who have been independently at work devising better programs for our gifted youth. Comparisons can be helpful. The interchange of ideas is certainly one road to progress.

This discussion will be in two parts: first, an explanation of the "Revere Junior High-School Academic Enrichment Program," as our plan is entitled, and second, a list of the conclusions at which we have tentatively arrived concerning an optimum curriculum for the gifted.

THE PROGRAM

A. Background

To understand the program which we have developed, it is necessary first to explain the educational setting of our school. Paul Revere Junior High School is located in the western section of Los Angeles. It serves the two suburban residential communities of Brentwood and Pacific Palisades. Our 1,750 boys and girls presently enrolled in grades 7-9 come largely from upper middle class homes; their median IQ is 113; most of them will ultimately attend a university.

During the 1958-59 school year, Revere participated, at the eighthgrade level, in a study of the gifted conducted by the state of California. Ultimately the results of this study, which has involved selected secondary schools throughout the state, are expected to provide guidance for our California State Legislature in the formulation of a state-wide program for the gifted.

The development of the program began in 1955 when the school first opened. Starting with a single B7 English-Social Studies class, it has in the past four years gradually evolved to the point where it now comprehends all these grades and includes instruction for our superior pupils in mathematics, science, foreign language, English, and social studies. Leadership has been provided by Charles Slater and Evelyn Clemens, coordinator and head counselor respectively, with some initial assistance from Paul Faucett, an English teacher. As the program evolved, our entire faculty has participated.

B. Objectives

By entitling our plan the Academic Enrichment Program (AE), we have sought to focus attention on the content of our special instruction rather than on the caliber of those receiving it. We believe that undesirable attitudes are less likely to develop if the students in the program are referred to as those who work harder and study more difficult material at their own grade level, rather than as those who are superior in abilities.

Briefly, our objectives are:

1. To provide horizontal enrichment in academic subjects for those students best fitted to profit from it

2. To stimulate these pupils to work and develop at a rate commensurate with their abilities

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To inspire and guide them toward goals that are optimum for themselves and society

4. To sharpen these students' tools of insight

5. To encourage them to maintain a balance between the curricular and the co-curricular aspects of their education

C. Identifying the Gifted

We arrived at these two convictions:

1. That there are different kinds of giftedness, not just one; but that, for practical purposes, pupils need to be identified in two major areas: those with superior abilities in mathematics and science, and those with unusual abilities in the language arts and social studies.

2. That to identify gifted pupils no one standard will suffice; instead several criteria need to be considered. Although these criteria are quite comparable for the two groups named above, the relative emphasis given these various standards is different, as will be indicated below.

We select pupils for the AE mathematics and science classes on the basis of the following criteria, listed in the order of their emphasis:

1. Achievement test scores in mathematical reasoning and fundamentals

2. Class achievement as indicated by marks in previous mathematics and science classes

3. Total index

4. Demonstration by the pupil, as observed and reported by his teachers, of the possession of at least one of the following attributes:

a. Unusual creativeness

b. Uncommon initiative and follow-through

c. Ability to deal with abstractions, to generalize and summarize, and to state principles and meanings

 d. Perception of interrelationships; application of previous learnings to new situations

e. Ease of comprehension; the logical and efficient solution of problems

f. Critical thinking

g. Exceptional lucidness of expression

h. Intellectual curiosity

i. Great diversity of interests

j. Extradordinary memory

We select pupils for our AE language arts and social studies classes on the basis of the following criteria, listed in the order of emphasis:

Indices (total index, primarily, but with the language index separately considered in unusual instances)

2. Achievement test scores in reading vocabulary and reading comprehension, primarily; and language and spelling, secondarily

 Class achievement as indicated by previous marks in English and social studies classes 4. Demonstration by the pupil, as observed and reported by his teacher, of the possession of at least one of the same attributes which we use for admitting pupils to AE mathematics and science classes (see above).

Of course, some pupils are gifted in both mathematics—science and language arts—social studies. Such pupils obviously are then scheduled for the complete AE program. However, we have learned, by experience, that giftedness in one area does not necessarily mean giftedness in the other, and that, in assigning pupils to these two tracks of our program, they need to be separately identified.

D. The Operation of the Program

The program is directed by the academic enrichment coordinator, in cooperation with the head counselor. Teachers are selected on the basis of expressed interest and demonstrated ability to teach in the AE program.

Once identified, pupils are assigned to English, social studies, and foreign language classes, and/or to mathematics and science classes at the appropriate grade levels. Their progress is frequently evaluated and reappraised, and their continuation in the program is dependent upon their demonstrating that they are profiting from and succeeding in these AE classes. Replacements, where necessary, are made at the end of each semester.

Outside these academic subjects students are grouped heterogeneously with the other pupils of their grade levels. This involves both non-academic required subjects (physical education, practical arts, and fine arts) and electives. The master schedule of classes is so constructed as to allow AE pupils maximum access to the electives of their choice, with as little interference as possible with their AE classes. In some cases, however, conflicts do arise. When they do, the pupil and his parents decide whether he should take the elective or be scheduled for the AE class. All academic enrichment classes are taught separately; there is no core instruction. The emphasis in each class is on horizontal, not vertical, enrichment. The teachers meet periodically with the AE coordinator to exchange ideas, to discuss course content, to plan instruction, to examine materials made available by the librarian, to consider marking standards, etc.

Marking in AE classes is never on the curve. The school's marking standards are adapted to each particular AE class. Emphasis is on individual achievement as it is related to these objective standards. It is assumed that, if properly assigned, each pupil in an AE class should make either an "A" or a "B" in that course. Should his mark be a "C" an individual study is made to determine whether the pupil should continue in the program or be reassigned to regular classes.

Pupils are encouraged to participate in the co-curricular program of the school. The leadership potential of these students is recognized, and they are given every opportunity to develop themselves through athletics. club activities, musical organizations, service clubs, assembly programs, and student council.

Parents of an AE student are informed about the program by means of a letter which is sent after the pupil has succeeded in an initial trial in AE classes and it is considered probable that he will continue to make satisfactory progress in the program.

A record is maintained in the guidance office for each pupil enrolled in the academic enrichment program. Each record card contains index and achievement test data, semester marks in academic subjects, evidence of unusual abilities, as noted above under "Identifying the Cifted," and a list of the co-curricular activities in which he has engaged.

E. Allocation of Responsibilities

We have considered it important to make certain that the entire faculty, not just the teachers of the academic enrichment classes, is involved in the program. All our teachers shared in its initial development, and all are afforded the opportunity to make suggestions regarding its operation. As our classes expand, other teachers constantly join those already teaching in the program. A list of all AE pupils is distributed to the entire faculty. Teachers outside the program are asked to recommend additional pupils for AE classes, and are also urged to provide enrichment for AE students in non-AE classes and co-curricular activities.

As the academic enrichment program functions, primary responsibilities are distributed as follows:

- 1. The principal establishes general policies, selects the personnel, and designates responsibilities.
- 2. The AE coordinator directs the program, identifying the pupils, computing the number of classes needed at each grade level, making recommendations as to teacher assignments, visiting classes, compiling records, and working with the AE teachers, both individually and as a group.
- 3. The head counselor is really co-director of the program with the AE coordinator. She supervises the necessary testing, programs pupils into classes, assists in the selections of students, and provides interpretation for and liaison with parents and students.
- Grade counselors assist in the selection of pupils, in testing, in programming, and in counseling with AE pupils.
- Department chairmen make recommendations as to teacher assignments, provide assistance for teachers in the program, and supervise needed textbooks and supplies.
- 6. The librarian provides advice as to materials for AE teachers, and orders and maintains special books, which are separately shelved.
- 7. The teachers of the AE classes obviously carry the major responsibility. They provide horizontal enrichment beyond the normal course of study, afford each student the opportunity to work to capacity, help each

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am of d, and detics, one choose and work toward optimum goals, and make recommendations to the AE coordinator concerning changes in the membership of individual classes.

Conclusions

After four years of experimentation, we at Paul Revere Junior High School have come to certain definite conclusions as to how a program for gifted students should be developed. We present these conclusions as a basis for comparison with those reached by other educators elsewhere. We hope that our recommendations may prove helpful to administrators presently engaged in seeking the best means of improving or developing their own programs for the gifted.

1. We believe that each such program should be developed gradually with the full participation of the entire faculty. It is our conviction that all who are to be concerned with making the program work should have

a share in its development.

2. We emphasize the importance of properly identifying gifted boys and girls. We suggest the use of multiple criteria, and recommend that they be applied differently in selecting pupils for language arts-social studies classes and for mathematics-science classes. The exact procedures to be used in this identification are given above. (See the section entitled "Identifying the Gifted.")

3. No matter how careful the identification procedure, some pupils will not succeed in the program. An actual tryout in the gifted class is necessary to validate the original identification. It is to be expected that a number of pupils will need to be replaced at the end of their first semester in the program. Afterwards, relatively few changes should be necessary.

4. We believe that when a gifted program is first conceived, it is most important that it be attuned to its pupil community. An analysis of the characteristics of the student body should be made. Test data including both indices and achievement test scores, age distribution, probable goals (Are most of the pupils college bound?), their parents' aspirations for them, and their physical and emotional maturity—all are factors that should be considered. Upon the basis of this analysis the administrator can intelligently decide how many classes to establish and at what grade levels, and can give proper orientation and direction to the teachers assigned to the program.

5. We recommend that careful consideration be given to the nomenclature of the program. Rather than "Gifted" or "Honors," we have preferred the term "Academic Enrichment" as a designation for our classes of superior boys and girls. Whatever term is chosen, it should be one which will reflect the primary emphasis of the program and which will be capable of interpretation to the pupils themselves and to their parents.

6. We consider it important that pupils be so programmed that they are not isolated from the rest of the student body, but rather that they have opportunities to mingle, both curricularly and co-curricularly, with

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classes be one ch will parents. at they at they y, with the rest of the student body. This objective will be achieved if gifted classes are limited to the academic subjects, and pupils enrolled in them are programmed heterogeneously in their other classes. It is essential, too, that all pupils be encouraged to participate in co-curricular activities.

- 7. We recommend that parents be informed of their children's participation in the program by means of a letter directed to them after the trial period has indicated that his success and continuance in the gifted classes are reasonably certain.
- 8. We believe that the teachers who are assigned responsibility for gifted classes should be carefully selected on the basis of their interest in, and their ability for, teaching superior pupils. We think it important that the gifted staff be mobile; that is, that each semester, as opportunity permits, new teachers be added to the program. It is preferable to limit each teacher to one, or at the most two, gifted classes, so as to insure as wide a teacher participation in the program as possible. All teachers, whether they teach the gifted classes or not, should be made to feel that they are participants.
- 9. It is essential that the entire program be carefully coordinated and directed. Assignment of a teacher as coordinator is recommended. We have found it good practice to associate this coordinator with the head counselor, so that, through the guidance program of the school, the individual development of each pupil can be watched and promoted.
- 10. Marking in gifted classes should be carefully differentiated. The standards used should not be the same as those used in regular classes. There should be no grading on the curve. Whenever a pupil makes a mark lower than a "B," a study should be conducted to determine whether he should remain in the program.
- 11. A record of the progress of each gifted pupil should be carefully kept. These records will help to insure that all pupils are properly observed and guided. Such data also can provide a basis for periodic evaluation and modification of the total program.
- 12. Finally, we have found that these specific dangers need to be guarded against:
- a. Excessive or improper emphasis on a program for the gifted to the neglect of other aspects of the school's educational program can be most detrimental. There is no place for an intellectual aristocracy in a comprehensive high school. Whatever the gifted program, it should, therefore, be kept in proper proportion.
- b. Overzealous teachers may overwork pupils in gifted classes. No matter how able pupils may be, they are still children, faced with the same physical and emotional demands of adolescent maturing that so-called normal children encounter. It is well to counsel with teachers in the gifted program to make certain that, while they seek to encourage their pupils to work to their capacities, they do not impose excessive and unreasonable assignments.

c. The temptation to interpret enrollment in the gifted program as an evidence of social superiority is one to which some pupils, some teachers, and some parents may succumb. Those involved in the leadership of the school's gifted program need to be alert to this danger, and to seek the means to overcome it.

We have presented a program for gifted pupils which has been developed over the past four years at one American junior high school. Based on our experience, we have also drawn certain conclusions and made certain recommendations as to what we consider constitute desirable practices for other educators to follow in developing similar programs. We suggest that in this important area are to be found both the challenge and the opportunity which are an integral part of our professional efforts to improve our system of American education.

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Integration for Educable Mentally Retarded Pupils in the Junior High School

EDWARD R. CUONY

THE junior high school is committed to the solidification of basic skills, exploration, and guidance. There is no reason why the educable mentally retarded pupil in the junior high school should not be given the opportunity to participate in the exploratory and guidance activities of the school. Segregation of this group, whose intelligence quotients range from 50 to 75 on individual intelligence tests such as the Stanford-Binet is appropriate only for instruction in the basic skills. The special classes organized for this group have usually been housed in a self-contained classroom for the entire educational program even though they have many of the same basic needs and desires as other pupils of ages 13-16.

A self-contained classroom for the educable mentally retarded provides for instruction in the basic skills. This type of organization provides an opportunity to develop these skills with a fairly homogeneous peer group. It provides an opportunity for these young people to work in a pressure-free atmosphere where they can achieve a measure of success consistent with their potential. Because they have many needs which cannot be met within the limits of a basic skills educational program, exploratory and guidance activities should be provided for them at an age when it is appropriate. Many educators feel that the junior high-school age is appropriate for exploration and guidance. The educable mentally retarded pupils will, in all probability, never complete a standard course of studies, but they will enter society and the labor market. They, too, should have the benefits derived from being able to explore their interests. They need the benefits of a planned guidance program.

True exploration provides an opportunity for testing and trying out various activities. Exploratory areas are not bound by the rigid academic standards of the basic skill areas. The exploratory experiences are geared to the interest and the capacity of the individual so that he may have the opportunity to develop to an optimum level. There is no reason why the educable mentally retarded should be denied these experiences.

Guidance activities at the junior high-school level are also geared to the individual. We attempt to aid the individual in analyzing and evaluating himself so that he may make wise choices. The junior high-school program of guidance is concerned with evaluation and helping students develop worth-while goals. We attempt to evaluate the exploratory experiences of all students. We feel, as does the instructor in the special education area, that this would be of value to the educable pupil as well as non-retarded pupils.

Edward R. Cuony is Principal of the Geneva Junior High School (Enrollment, grades 7-9, 770), Geneva, New York.

In the Geneva Junior High School, we have been retaining the educable pupil of ages 13-16 in a self-contained classroom for instruction in basic skills. We have, however, integrated these pupils into the exploratory, guidance, and co-curricular activities of the regular program. This is consistent with our philosophy of exploration and guidance which proposes to help students to broaden interests and provide some basis for future educational and vocational choices.

These special students are scheduled into the exploratory areas on an individual basis. Three general criteria are utilized in determining, rather subjectively, whether a pupil can fit into any one particular group and function fairly well. We use the chronological age, an estimate of social maturity, and adaptability. The students in the Special Class are still retained within the classroom for instruction in basic areas such as reading, arithmetic processes, and writing. Since we are able to schedule as many as three or four pupils at a time into regular classes, the Special Class instructor is able to provide a great deal more individual attention to the remaining students even though his plans must be more flexible.

We are able to schedule the girls from the Special Class into regular homemaking classes where they function very well even though they are not quite as adept in academic aspects as our regular students. They are, however, able to participate in the class learning activities and have been accepted very well by the group in which they were placed. The boys are able to function adequately in the industrial arts and the fine arts area. We are also able to integrate these special students into physical education classes without any difficulty. In a few cases, we have also placed some of the educable students into our eighth-grade typing classes. While they do not function with the same speed and facility as do our regular students, they are able to gain a great deal from this experience.

The exploratory experiences of these students are evaluated by the teacher involved, the Special Class teacher, and the guidance personnel. Conferences are held with the students, as with our regular students, in order that they may gain some insight into their interests and skills in the areas mentioned above. We feel that it is just as important for the students in the Special Class to have the same privileges and opportunities that our regular students have, even though at a different level.

The activity program is an integral part of our exploratory program. Consequently, we feel that the Special Class students should also have an opportunity to participate in these co-curricular activities and to evaluate their experiences. The students in the Special Class are not limited to any special activities. In analyzing their choices throughout the past few years, we found that their choices were quite similar to those of students in the regular stream of the curriculum. A number of the educable class participated in the audio-visual group and the stage crew. There also were a number in the choral groups and the band. The safety patrol, and the Future Homemakers of America enrolled several of these pupils into their organization.

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The boys also functioned very well in the Junior Chef's Club and in the intramural sports program. There is no attempt to limit these pupils, but guidance is provided to channel them into activities which we feel would be of the greatest value to them and in which they evidence an interest. The counselors and the Special Class teacher, working with the administration, encourage these pupils to enroll in one or two activities during the year. As criteria, we again use chronological age, social maturity, and adaptability. The Special Class students also participate in the election of representatives to the student council of the junior high school and the Junior Red Cross Council. The pride engendered by participation in these latter two activities has aided discipline and school citizenship among these educable students. Several of the students in the Special Class have been recipients of awards because of their service in the co-curricular field.

The regular teachers, to whom these educable pupils are assigned, are provided with psychological and personal data on the individual. The teachers are also provided with some suggestions for working with

these young people.

We feel that integrating educable mentally retarded pupils is a worthwhile experience for both the school and the students. The instructor in the Special Class has the impression that his students gain a great deal from their association with students in the regular stream. These special students are accepted by the teachers and student body in the activities and in the exploratory subjects areas without incident or mention of their special category.

In integrating the educable student into some of our activities and regular classes, we help him to explore and evaluate his own interests and abilities. This probably is more meaningful than if he had been retained

in a self-contained classroom for all activities.

The group guidance and individual counseling program is also made available to these educable mentally retarded youth. They profit from the orientation and study habits program of the seventh-grade group guidance classes. Occupational information, offered in the eighth grade, is probably even more valuable. The emphasis in the latter instance is on broad occupational areas. We provide the educable mentally retarded students with individual counseling to help them direct more intensive study in one or two occupations in which they might find employment upon leaving school. The intensive study for these students consists of observations on the job, part-time employment, and conferences with employed personnel. Individual conferences are also held with these children to help them assess themselves in the light of their vocational goals and school experiences.

The evaluation of this project has been subjective to date. Our impression is that the educable mentally retarded pupils have gained a great deal from this program. We feel that they are receiving a well-rounded education which will make them more valuable citizens in the community.

Special Reading Instruction in Illinois Junior High Schools

M. DALE BAUGHMAN

WITH reading skills as with work horses, the stronger they are, the more they accomplish. Junior high-school pupils stand at the threshold of the stage of reading where they will need to read widely for varied purposes. As a transitional school, the junior high school must help these pupils to grow rapidly in reading comprehension and speed if they are to succeed in the next stage of multipurpose reading in broad areas.

In a superior junior high school, there may be found balance, flexibility, and participation.¹ Reading improvement as a form of remedial instruction is evidence of balance. According to Traxler,² three kinds of organization are needed at all grade levels if reading is to be improved significantly in all pupils. They are (1) developmental reading for all pupils, (2) remedial reading for pupils with serious reading handicaps, and (3) corrective reading for those with minor difficulties.

To gain an overview of reading improvement practices in junior high schools and possibly to aid in the formulation of articulated programs for teaching reading skills, it was decided by the research committee of the Junior High-School Association of Illinois to make an appropriate survey of present practices of providing reading instruction in the junior high schools of the state.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

In January of 1959, questionnaires were mailed to 269 junior high schools listed in the *Illinois School Directory*. By February 25, there were 133 usable returns for study. They came from schools organized as follows:

Johnson, Mauritz, "Three Things To Look for in Evaluating a Junior High School," School Review: 64:136, March 1956.

^{*}Traxler, Arthur E., "Remedial Reading Today," School Review: 61:19, January 1953.

M. Dale Baughman is Assistant Professor of Junior and Senior High-School Administration and Consultant to the Junior High-School Association of Illinois and the Illinois Junior High-School Principals' Association, 200 Gregory Hall, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

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Grade Organization	Total Number of Schools Responding	Number of Schools with Reading Programs
7-8	70	51
7-8-9	32	23
6-7-8	12	8
K-8	2	2
7-12	1	1
8-9	1	1
5-6-7-8	2	0
Unknown	13	

Sixty-four per cent of the schools indicated that they provided special reading instruction. Jordan's survey of Florida junior high schools showed that 54 per cent of them offer remedial work in reading. The 1954 nation-wide survey of junior high schools by Gruhn and Douglas revealed that two thirds of their sample of 370 schools had remedial classes, most of which were in reading.

The Nature of Reading Instruction

Instruction in reading is most commonly referred to as remedial or developmental according to the respondents who reported on the nature of instruction as follows:

Name of Reading Program	Number of Schools
Remedial	23
Developmental	23
Corrective	4
Developmental and Remedial	9
Developmental and Corrective	5
Remedial and Corrective	4
Developmental, Remedial, and Corrective	3
Other	14

Although it is a desirable attribute, it is obvious that only three schools in this sample provide for all three types of reading instruction mentioned earlier—developmental, remedial, and corrective.

Major Responsibility and Grade Placement

In 60 per cent of the schools queried the English department assumes major responsibility for the program in special reading instruction. Brink and Witty⁵ studied 183 high schools and also found that the majority placed such responsibility with the English department.

^{*} Jordan, James W., "A Survey of Certain Policies and Practices in Florida Junior High Schools," The BULLETIN of the NASSP: 42:71-77, September 1958.

Gruhn, W. T. and Douglass, H. The Modern Junior High School, 2nd Edition. New York: The Ronald Press. 1956.

⁸ Brink, W. G. and Witty, P., "Current Practices in Remedial Reading in Secondary Schools," School Review: 57:260-66, May-June 1949.

The number of responding schools giving instruction at various grade levels is as follows: grade seven, 82; grade eight, 78; and grade nine, 12. In the junior high schools of this investigation, reading instruction seems to be given in both grades seven and eight with nearly equal frequency. Of the 23 schools with grades 7, 8, and 9, twelve offer reading instruction in grade nine.

Initiation of the Reading Program

From the data at hand, it is clear that, in most junior high schools in Illinois, emphasis on reading instruction for those below grade level is rather new. Slightly more than 50 per cent of the responding schools initiated their programs during or after the 1957-58 school year. Prior to 1954-55 only 20 of the 85 schools represented in this survey had special reading instruction. Twenty-five junior high schools began their emphasized program of reading instruction just prior to or during the school year 1958-59.

Frequency of Class Meetings

In 36 schools, special classes meet daily; in ten schools, they meet twice weekly. The remainder of the schools reported 15 varied plans ranging from once a week to ten periods per week. One school said, "It varies with the pupil."

Training of Teaching Personnel

In 37 per cent of the schools reporting data, there is a specially trained teacher to provide, or aid in providing, reading instruction.

A study of remedial reading practices at the secondary-school level by Brink and Witty ⁶ revealed that a definite minority of teachers—28 out of 126—were full-time specialists. In the 47 schools of the Illinois investigation where only regular classroom teachers were used, selection of personnel was made on the following basis: drafted, 15; volunteers, 30; both draft and volunteers, 8; selected by the administrator, 4; all teachers take a turn, 2. Twenty-six schools failed to answer this portion of the questionnaire. Of the 31 junior high schools which have specially trained teachers, 20 are engaged full-time in special reading instruction.

MAJOR FINDINGS

Objectives

By far the most commonly stated objective for the developmental program was one such as "to improve reading ability" or "to improve basic reading skills." For the remedial programs such objectives as these were mentioned frequently: (1) to remedy faulty habits, (2) to raise the general achievement level to permit high-school success, (3) to bring the subnormal readers to normal level, (4) to remove deficiencies, and (5) to teach reading skills not learned in the lower grades. Eleven schools failed to state objectives.

⁶ Brink and Witty, idem.

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Comprehension or understanding was mentioned ten times, a speed and vocabulary five times each, and speech two times in the stated objectives. Attitudes, study habits, reading for enjoyment, enrichment, improved listening, confidence, and adequacy were mentioned in two or three instances.

Instructional Materials

One school indicated use of the textbook as the only teaching tool used. The opposite extreme was the utilization by 12 schools of textbooks, workbooks, supplementary materials, and special equipment. The most common combination of instructional materials, used by 33 schools, is that of textbooks, workbooks, and supplementary materials.

Special equipment mentioned included SRA Lab, controlled readers, rate controllers and accelerators, tachistoscope, amplifiers, films, recorders, flash cards, shadowscope, reading pacer, and telebinocular. At least 25 different items of instructional materials, including special equipment, were mentioned as having great value to the program. However, the respondents in this survey favored the teaching aids published by Science Research Associates; Scott, Foresman, and Company; and Reader's Digest. Selection of Pupils

Most of the schools with a developmental reading program include all or nearly all the pupils in the instructional activities. Many varied criteria for selecting pupils for remedial and corrective instruction were reported. They could be grouped into three categories as follows: (1) chiefly tests—achievement, intelligence, reading, diagnostic; (2) opinions, evaluation, judgment, and observations of teachers, principals, and consultants; and (3) a combination of (1) and (2).

Twenty-three schools seem to rely chiefly on tests, 15 on the judgments and evaluations of teachers or other involved personnel, and 28 schools select pupils for instruction on the basis of a combination of tests and teacher judgment. In one or two instances pupil request and parent approval were mentioned. Tests mentioned most frequently were the lowa Silent Reading Test, Iowa Basic Skills Test, SRA Lab, Gates Reading Survey, Stanford Achievement Test, and California Achievement Test. Termination of Special Instruction

Seventeen responses indicated that, once a pupil is assigned to a special reading class, he stays in it until the program is completed or the semester ends, whichever comes first, or until he is graduated or drops out. On the other hand, 54 schools terminate special instruction when individual pupils show evidence of desirable and reasonable progress or

individual pupils show evidence of desirable and reasonab competency as determined by tests and teacher judgment. Evaluating Pupil Progress

Best estimates of pupil growth in reading skills seem to be based largely on achievement and diagnostic tests, plus observation of teachers, principals, and specialists. Other aids to evaluation mentioned by the respondents were student self-evaluation, pupil conferences, progress charts, partent conferences, daily informal checks, and oral reading ability.

Involvement of Other Personnel

In eleven schools personnel other than the reading teacher are not involved in the program of instruction. Four schools emphasized that all teachers are reading teachers. Six respondents involve all language arts teachers in reading instruction. Other than these examples, there is no definite pattern of involvement of other school personnel, although every conceivable member of the teaching and administrative staff was mentioned at least once.

Factors Contributing to Poor Reading

Table I presents information relative to possible factors causing faulty reading skills.

TABLE I. Major Causes of Poor Reading

Number of Schools*
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[•] Each respondent was asked to name three causes. Several responses pointed to low mental ability as the chief contributing factor to poor reading. It is assumed that some of the respondents viewed "educational immaturity" as encompassing the low mental ability factor.

The data-givers in this study point to three factors largely responsible for faulty reading skills in their pupils: educational immaturity, ineffective teaching methods, and health factors. According to our sources of information "ineffective teaching methods" is a factor in poor reading equal in frequency to the combined factors of defective speech, vision, hearing, and motor control.

Nature of Activities

Table II contains data bearing on instructional activities.

TABLE II. Nature of Activities Which Characterize the Program

Activity	Frequency of Mention
Develop meaning	75*
Recognize needs and interests of pupils	73*
Promote good study habits	71*
Develop speed	67
Extend and enrich experiences	64
Aid evaluation of printed materials	56

Respondents were requested to double check activities which receive greatest emphasis. Forty-two of them reported that they emphasize the development of meaning, 37 emphasize special needs and interests of pupils, and 28 emphasize activities which promote good study habits.

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reatest meanivities It is apparent from the above table that reading instruction in our sample of Illinois junior high schools emphasizes comprehension, good study habits, and individual interests and differences.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Questionnaires were mailed to each of the 269 junior high schools in Illinois. Of the 133 schools which replied, 86 reported that they offered special reading instruction. Such instruction is most commonly referred to as remedial or developmental reading. The modal practice is to schedule the special reading class daily for a predetermined period of time. However, most schools let individual pupils terminate participation when they show evidence of acceptable progress.

Very few of the schools in the sample have well-established programs of long tenure. Only in the last four years have there been large numbers of junior high schools adding special reading instruction to their programs. Slightly more than one third of Illinois junior high schools have a teacher with special training in remedial or developmental reading.

Most junior high schools in Illinois base selection of pupils for special reading instruction on a combination of various tests and teacher judgment. In the judgment of school officials, educational immaturity is the chief cause for poor reading.

The following conclusions are based on data from a 50 per cent sample of junior high schools in Illinois:

- 1. Although many Illinois junior high schools are now engaged in the improvement of reading, far too few have a comprehensive program designed to improve the reading skills of all pupils.
- There is a need in most schools for teachers with some special training in reading instruction for the handicapped as well as for the near-normal readers.

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Developing Independent Study Habits in the Junior High School

EDWARD R. CUONY

ONE of the avowed purposes of the junior high school is to help the student in the transition from the relatively close supervision of the elementary school to the senior high school with its more complex schedule and necessity for independent study patterns. Unless the pupil learns to study independently of the teacher and the parent, the junior high school is failing in one of its prime functions. Homework is one of the avenues toward this goal. The introduction of homework assignments and the development of independent study habits must be a gradual one, however. Children in the elementary school have not had an extensive experience in the preparation of home assignments or in the development of home study habits; therefore, one of the jobs in the junior high school is to teach these pupils how to study, and how to work independently of the teacher and the parents.

The kinds and amount of homework assigned and the development of independent study habits are closely related to the philosophy and objectives of the school.1 When the junior high school sets up as one of its basic objectives the development and inculcation of good study habits and independent work habits, we must also develop the means to teach youngsters how to accomplish this. In the Geneva Junior High School, the faculty and a group of lay people studied the matter extensively. It was the consensus of this group that one of the means of developing good study habits was to have the teachers in each subject area spend some time at the beginning of each year in teaching the necessary study skills for that particular subject. The responsibility for development of study habits is one of the teacher's primary objectives and he must work in close harmony with the home in attaining this objective. A pupil thrown into water instinctively goes through the motions of swimming. but he will not swim until he is taught to adapt himself to his new environment. Pupils do not instinctively know how to study; they too, must be taught to survive in their new environment, for the art of study is composed of complex skills and attitudes. Each teacher must teach the art of study in his or her subject. Since study techniques vary widely in different subject areas, it is necessary, before the full potential of the

Lipsy, Jack, "How Much Homework," School Executive, October 1955, pp. 54-55.
Edward R. Cuony is Principal of Geneva Junior High School (Enrollment, grades 7-9, 770), Geneva, New York.

student can be realized, that he must know how to study in each subject

he pursues.

To aid in this matter, the organizational plan of the Geneva Junior High School set up a fifty-minute period within which there was time for teaching and time for supervised study to help students get started on homework assignments and to help the teacher check the study and work habits of students as they were working alone. About 15 or 20 minutes at the end of each of the fifty-minute periods are devoted to supervised study. It is stressed that this time is allowed to help students get started on home assignments. This makes it possible for the teacher to check students and their progress as they get started on their assignments.

It must be noted, however, that this is only a device to help students get started on their homework. We still have the second phase of this problem, the development of study habits independent of the school and of the parents while working at home. To this end we held a number of parent meetings to discuss our point of view with them. We felt that parents are an integral part in the education of their children. We took pains to develop with parents our program of inculcating attitudes of good study habits. For this purpose we used the publication *Tips*, since this was the publication used by our guidance personnel in supplementing the program of teaching study habits carried on by each teacher in a particular subject area.

We also held faculty meetings to aid teachers in teaching good study habits. We had to make certain that teachers understood the purpose of the supervised study and to help them motivate students to work independently. Teachers were cautioned to make their assignments clear and that they take the time during the supervised study period to walk around the room to spot-check assignments and to note that there were no misconceptions about the assignment. The supervised study period was not

intended to provide time to complete assignments.

In addition to the parent and teacher meetings, a letter was sent home to each parent stating the purpose of the study program. In this letter we pointed out the importance of developing independent study habits and doing homework regularly, not only because it would probably result in better scholastic marks, but also because these habits were important to the educational development of the student involved. We pointed out that, unless the pupil established good attitudes and habits regarding homework and study at this critical time of their educational development, it would be doubtful if the student would be able to achieve all that he was able.

We are all aware that the attitudes and habits established during the junior high-school years will have a great deal of bearing on the types of courses chosen in senior high school and also the potential for post-secondary education. We made the following suggestions to parents in

our letter:

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- A regular home-study period should be established for the student and he should stick to it, even though he stated that no homework had been assigned. We pointed out that it was wise to study the same subject at the same time each day for the same amount of time.
- 2. When the student states that no assignment has been given, the assignment book or sheet which has been worked out by the guidance personnel should be checked. If no assignments have been given, the time allotted for a particular subject should be used in reviewing and studying that particular subject. If the student reports that no assignments have been given for several days, it would be wise to check with the school with reference to this matter.
- 3. During the study periods, the student should not be disturbed by telephone calls, TV, and other distractions.
- 4. Once the student has worked out a study schedule, insist that it be kept. Variations to meet emergencies might be necessary, but the development of good study habits cannot be accomplished by a haphazard approach.
- 5. Parents should show an interest in the work and accomplishments of the student.

We then listed an illustrative study schedule. We felt that 20 minutes per subject was an absolute minimum in seventh grade. In the eighth grade we aimed at about 25 minutes of home study time per subject. In the ninth grade our objective was 30 minutes per subject devoted to home study. In total time, this meant that the seventh-grade student would spend about an hour to an hour and 20 minutes as a minimum amount of time in home study. The eighth-grade student would spend roughly an hour and 15 minutes to an hour and 40 minutes in total home study time, whereas for the ninth-grade student carrying five subjects, as most of our students do, it would mean approximately 2 and one-half hours in total time in independent home study.

We have made several follow-up surveys over the past few years. In our last homework survey conducted during the 1959-60 school year, we found a great many variations among our students with regard to the amount of time devoted to assignments outside of school hours. By computing the means, we found that the average seventh-grade student devoted about 18 minutes of home study per preparatory subject per day; the eighth-grade student, about 22 minutes per day per subject; and the ninth-grade student, about 27 minutes per subject per day. We felt that these means times were fairly close to the goal that we had set for our

students.

We feel that homework and the development of independent study habits will continue to be a goal which we will stress a great deal. We know that homework should be meaningful and held to the same standards as all other classwork submitted by pupils. Strang² suggests the following as objectives of homework:

^{*} Strang, Ruth, Guided Study and Homework, No. 8. Washington 6, D. C.: Department of Classroom Teachers and American Educational Research Association, National Education Association, 1955. p. 12.

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 To stimulate voluntary effort, initiative, independence, responsibility, and self-direction

To encourage a carryover of worth-while school activities into permanent interests

3. To enrich the school experience through related home activities

 To re-enforce school learning by providing the necessary practice, integration, and application

The real task of improving study and homework habits falls upon the classroom teacher and the home. Instruction in how to study and how to do homework is profitable. We know this from our survey since our previous surveys indicated that the time devoted to home study and home assignments was considerably less than after we started our campaign to help students recognize the importance of homework and home study. Time spent on this topic has proven well worth while.

In making homework assignments, teachers should explain the assignment thoroughly. If possible, assignments should be given at the beginning of the class period and written on the board. Teachers should vary assignments and reserve new or difficult work for the classroom. Other suggestions to teachers with reference to assignments promulgated by our faculty committee are to provide more motivation, to adapt the work to the maturity and the intellectual level of the student, and to do more actual teaching and less lesson hearing at school. Assignments which challenge and broaden the student's outlook were also urged. If assignments are not varied for different groups, there is no need to group classes as most schools now do.

A classroom teacher should ask himself the following questions in attempting to appraise and improve homework and independent study policies.³

1. Do assignments stem directly from classwork?

2. Are the assignments varied according to the needs of the different groups?

3. Does the student understand the assignment? Does he know just what to do and when he is supposed to finish?

4. Will the student have the necessary tools for the work? Are alternates possible?

5. Are there some voluntary assignments?

6. Are the assignments interesting to students?

7. Do some of the assignments help to direct the student's interest toward new intellectual activities?

8. Do some of the assignments help in broadening the understanding of students?

9. Does the plan for giving assignments allow for flexibility in the student's program? Can he miss some work in an emergency and make it up later? These are some of the questions the teacher should ask about the homework assignments.

³ Homework NEA Research Division. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association. January 1958. p. 8.

Our last year's graduating class felt quite keenly about this matter of the development of home-study and homework assignments and felt that a section should be included in the student handbook regarding this matter. The student committee working with several faculty members on the revision of the student handbook came up with the following additions to the student handbook with reference to study helps for students. It was developed in the following manner:

 It is important that you understand clearly just what is included in your assignment for each subject. An assignment notebook or assignment sheet is necessary. It must be neat and accurate and in taking notes for your

assignments be sure that everything is noted.

2. Your study time at home and at school. When you study at school, make worth-while use of every minute in your supervised study periods and during the self-improvement if you are not attending an activity. You will be amazed at the amount of work you can accomplish at these times if this procedure is practiced regularly. At home, be sure you plan a definite time each evening for each subject. Even though this period is limited, you will find that by following a regular schedule, studying will be much easier for you. If you postpone your homework and your studying, you will certainly suffer because of it.

3. Your place of study. In school, be sure that you are ready to go, that you have all of your materials, and that you are sitting in your proper seat. At home, try to select a quiet spot away from the others that will avoid interruptions such as the telephone and the TV. You should always have all of your materials ready, handy so that you don't have to leave your seat to shapen your pencils, look for paper, or look for your books. To all the new students in the junior high school, we would like to suggest the following:

a. Work hard.

b. Work alone. Don't ask for help from others unless it's very necessary. Try to to be an independent worker.

c. In your reading, form the habit of making brief notes on the impor-

tant items in each paragraph.

d. In science and social studies, a topic outline is very helpful in learning what is to be discussed the next day in class.

e. Brief notes taken during class discussion sometimes help in pre-

paring your assignments at home.

f. Restudy your assignments several times. Be sure you give careful

attention to your weak points.

g. All written assignments should be done neatly and accurately. Check your results, if possible, and label your work correctly. Don't crowd your work. The important thing to remember is that you are working for yourself. As long as you're here at the junior high school, you will be treated fairly. The assignment as given to you is for your benefit, not for the teachers. The type of education you receive here will depend on the attitude and the abilities you develop through your three years here in school. We wish you the best of luck.

These items were written and proposed by the students for inclusion in the student handbook. We are including these for the first time this year. We plan to make another survey and to continue to stress the importance of home study habits and the regular homework assignments.

Junior High-School College Night

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the ents. U. BERKLEY ELLIS

THE College Night program has proved to be a very successful and worth-while service offered the high-school students of our county. Due to the largeness of our student population and the geographical size, the schools have been divided into an upper and lower Bucks County group for College Night programs.

The Philadelphia Suburban Principals Association has been instrumental in creating the mechanism for a clearing house of dates for "College Nights." This has eliminated conflicting dates which created the problem of not having representatives of all the desired colleges able to attend the numerous programs held in the southeastern part of Pennsylvania.

The increased attendance at Lower Bucks County College Nights necessitated the restriction of junior high-school students attending this affair. Thus, the eighth- and ninth-grade students who are now beginning to think about college are eliminated from this very valuable experience.

The guidance counselors of the Delhaas Joint School District's two junior high schools felt that some college or post-school orientation should be offered our eighth- and ninth-grade students. These youngsters must become aware of the preparation necessary to be accepted in the post-high-school institutions. This is emphasized by the fact that at the eighth- and ninth-grade levels, the student starts to select the subjects and courses which will prepare him for his post-high-school vocational choice (i.e., algebra and language; technical, academic, general, or business courses).

The above matter was the topic of our early fall workshop for the guidance counselors of the Franklin Delano Roosevelt and Ben Franklin Junior High Schools. The present college night program was studied and it was decided that it did not meet the needs of the junior high-school student. This program is too individual and specialized; the representatives from some fifty colleges meet with interested parents and students discussing *only their school*. What the junior high-school student needs is a more general, exploratory experience. He is not ready yet to select the individual institution.

U. Berkley Ellis is Principal of the Franklin Delano Roosevelt Junior High School (Enrollment, grades 7-9, 1,200), 1001 Rodgers Road, Bristol, Pennsylvania.

A plan was developed and presented for approval from the principals and the district superintendent. Permission was received to hold this first "Junior High-School College Night" on Tuesday, December 15, 1959, at the Franklin Delano Roosevelt Junior High School. It was agreed to invite representatives from five different types of post-high-school training institutions—university, liberal arts college, state teachers college, junior college, and technical institute.

An invitation, a description of the program planned for the evening, questions to be discussed, and directions for reaching the school were mailed to five local institutions representative of the listed categories. The following schools accepted the invitation and sent representatives—Temple University, Gettysburg College, West Chester State Teachers' College, Trenton Junior College, and Spring Garden Technical Institute.

Publicity was arranged through the local radio stations and newspapers. Descriptive letters were sent to all eighth- and ninth-grade parents, and a reminder flyer was sent home to them the Friday night before the program date. Posters were hung in the cafeteria and halls; announcements were broadcast over the PA news program held each morning during the ten-minute homeroom devotional period; and the event was discussed at class meetings.

The December date was selected because it came before course selection time in January, and there are no PTA meetings held during December. The advisability of the evening selected was supported by the

attendance of over five hundred parents and students.

The school representatives composing the panel met with a guidance counselor moderator a half hour before the program to become acquainted with one another and to review the conduct of the panel. The following questions were listed for discussion:

1. Purpose of this type of institution

Entrance requirements
 Curricular offerings

4. Co-curricular programs

5. Costs and expenses

6. Scholarships and other aid available

The moderator asked each of the above questions and allowed each panel member to discuss it in light of the type of institution he represented. Questions were encouraged from the audience after the discussion of the question, and there was opportunity to speak to the individual panel members at the conclusion of the program.

Parents and students received a general but very informative explanation of the various schools represented. They were very enthusiastic con-

cerning the opportunity to attend this type of program.

"I am glad I now know what it costs to attend a university." "Now I know my boy should attend a technical school and forget about college." "My daughter can attend a junior college until she decides which college or the type of training she wishes to complete." Many were the similar remarks heard at the conclusion of the program.

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Evaluating our first attempt at a college night orientation for junior high-school students, the following changes might be incorporated:

- 1. Invite representatives from the same type institution but from different schools.
 - 2. Provide parents with a program listing the questions to be discussed.
- Extend an invitation to neighboring junior high schools to attend.
 Divide the program into two parts; one meeting in the cafeteria, the other in the auditorium for
 - a. Colleges and universities
- b. Technical schools, industrial schools (General Motors Institute), business schools, etc.

It is still too early to evaluate the long-range advantages realized by parents and students from this program. However, the following are some that we as educators can appreciate:

- 1. Parents and students become aware of the cost of higher education.
- Students learn they must start in junior high school to prepare for entrance into an institution of higher learning.
- Students and parents have a better understanding of the purpose and value of each of the schools discussed.
- Students are more aware of the need for greater scholastic achievement in the face of higher competition for admission to post-high-schools educational programs.
- Schools are provided another opportunity to develop joint efforts for offering desirable services for their students.
- Parents, students, and community are again made aware of another service the schools render in the every-day process of preparing the student for the future.

The program described above may not meet the needs of all junior high schools; however, it is another method that can be employed to fulfill the exploratory objective of junior high schools.

Parent Conferences in the Junior High School

THOMAS W. FINE

Many of our elementary schools throughout the United States have incorporated parent conferences as a part of their total student reporting program. These schools found the parents to be extremely enthusiastic with this reporting procedure. Parents and teachers have reported that the face-to-face conferences have helped to bridge the gap between the

home and school more than any other previous endeavor.

Secondary schools have been reluctant to enter into parent conferences due to many obstacles inherent in a departmentalized school. A parent's child may have up to seven different teachers to contact which would be extremely time consuming for both parent and teachers. The Alder Junior High School along with two other junior high schools in our district was approached by the District Lay-Curriculum Committee to study the possibilities of parent conferences on the secondary level. The Alder Guidance Committee accepted the task and developed the following program.

PARENT-TEACHER CONFERENCES

Each student receives four written reports per school year. Within the first three weeks of school, the parents are invited to an open house wherein each parent is guided through his child's program. At this time the teacher explains the objectives of the course and the planned program for the year. The regular school program is telescoped into seven periods of ten minutes each for this explanation to the parents.

At the beginning of the second quarter, parents are scheduled to attend a parent conference at which time they are given their child's report sheets. This is done by setting aside one week of minimum days wherein each parent is scheduled to attend at a specific time. The first scheduled session starts one-half hour after school is dismissed with an equal number of seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade parents requested by mail to report to the cafetorium at a specific time. As the parents arrive, they are seated in a group for a short explanation of the program by the principal. At the culmination of this discussion, the parents are asked to collect their child's grades from each of his teachers who are spaced throughout the cafetorium in alphabetical order (teacher name cards are prominently displayed for easy identity). The parents are instructed that they have from five to ten minutes to discuss their child's

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rents gram are are ame are nild's program with each teacher, but that each teacher will be pleased to schedule an extended visit upon request for the following week. Three of these group sessions are scheduled each day at forty-five minute intervals.

It should be noted that, regardless of the school population, individual teacher conference loads are not affected. A larger student population would probably necessitate the use of grade-level meetings in different areas: school gymnasium, cafetorium, library, etc.

TEACHER PREPARATION

Prior to the conferences, the teachers have several opportunities to discuss conferences and possible problems that they might encounter. One session is spent on role playing, with teachers playing the part of parent and teacher. Several staff meetings are set aside for this purpose over an extended period of several months. Other parent conference programs on the secondary-school level are investigated and the problems confronted by these groups are used as a basis for discussion.

Throughout the pre-training period, the importance of a positive approach during the conferences is stressed. Emphasis is placed upon concern for student growth and improvement rather than to "justify" why a child is where he is at a given reporting period. This same emphasis is stressed to the parents at the group sessions prior to their meeting the teachers. This over-all positive approach to the conferences probably accounts for the overwhelming success of the program as expressed by the parents and teachers.

EVALUATION

A total of seventy-two per cent of the students' parents appeared for the first parent conference program. A small sampling of those parents that did not attend indicated that, by setting aside one evening conference, the percentage of participation would be increased. Small check-type evaluation cards were given the parents at the conference to indicate their feelings relative to the conferences. All the evaluations but two indicated a strong liking for the program.

A survey of the teachers involved in the program indicated that they wanted the program to continue next year and that it has had a beneficial effect on their classroom programs.

Orientation at Pattengill Junior High School

ANNA L. BREWER

THE orientation program for seventh-grade students entering Pattengill Junior High School is fourfold: first, an orientation evening for students, parents, and sixth-grade teachers in May; second, multiple counseling at the beginning of the school year; third, separate meetings of boys and girls as an entire group; and fourth, seventh-grade parent night in the fall.

The main purposes of the Pattengill Orientation Evening are to acquaint students, parents, and teachers with parts of the school program which are being carried on at Pattengill, to give certain information which would be helpful to both students and parents in preparation for school in September, and to become acquainted with the physical setup of the building.

Plans for the evening include first, a general meeting in the auditorium at which time an explanation of policies, procedures, practices, and the counseling program are explained. The audience is then divided into discussion groups and moved from the auditorium into Pattengill. After the discussion period, those who wish to do so are conducted on a short

tour through the building.

Welcome

Booklets of information are prepared for each family sending a new student to Pattengill. These are handed to the families on Pattengill Orientation Evening. For those not able to attend, booklets are sent to the elementary schools for distribution to the homes. By getting this written information into the homes in the spring, preparation for and adjustment to junior high school is made easier for the seventh-grade students. The table of contents for the booklets follows:

Time Schedule
Attendance, Excuses and Admits
Citizenship and Discipline Policies
Required and Elective Subjects
General Information:
Athletic Program
Citizenship Oath
East Courier (School Paper)
General Organization (Plan of)
General Organization Point System of Awards
Hall Lockers
History

Anna L. Brewer is Assistant Principal of the Pattengill Junior High School (Enrollment, grades 7-9, 1,450), Lansing, Michigan.

Sending Schools

Supplies Needed (General)

Supplies . . . Boys' Physical Education Supplies . . . Girls' Physical Education

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The second phase of the orientation program includes services through multiple counseling. The scheduling of the seventh-grade students takes place during the first period of the school day. Students report to their classes for roll call, then are excused to meet with their counselors. To schedule the entire grade covers a period of eight days. Sizes of groups range from 8 to 15. During the year, the entire seventh grade is serviced four times in a group situation. This is, of course, in addition to individual counseling. The purposes of the multiple or group counseling are four-fold:

A. To develop desirable pupil relationships by giving pupils an opportunity to see their counselors and open an avenue whereby the pupils may feel free to discuss any problems by asking for individual conferences

B. To guide the pupils by giving information

C. To service more pupils on certain general topics in a given length of time

D. To strive to develop desirable attitudes and habits of citizenship

The methods used by the counselors for the first series of meetings are to explain certain procedures, to allow a discussion period, to give opportunity for questions, and to tour counseling facilities. An outline follows:

A. Purpose of meeting

- 1. Explain counseling
 - a. Information
 - b. Assistance
- c. Questions
- 2. Explain counseling tools
 - a. Counselor cards
 - b. Box for counselor cards
 - c. Appointment slips
 - d. Counseling rooms
- 3. Question cards
- B. Discussion period
 - 1. Conduct of Pattengill students
 - a. Corridors
 - b. Home rooms
 - c. Classrooms
 - d. Auditorium
 - e. School events
 - f. Street and public places
 - 2. General Organization
 - 3. Extracurricular activities and clubs
- C. Question period
- D. Tour of counseling facilities
 - 1. Counseling rooms
 - 2. Box for counselor cards
 - 3. Lost and Found Department
 - 4. General office

School

- 5. Mr. Chamberlain's office
- 6. Miss Brewer's office
- 7. Mr. Smith's office

Topics for the other three series of group meetings are more flexible as the interests and needs of each group of scheduled counselees determines—for the most part, the topics discussed.

The third phase includes a meeting for seventh-grade boys with the man assistant principal and a meeting for seventh-grade girls with the woman assistant principal in the auditorium. There is, of course, considerable overlapping of topics pertaining to procedures and policies, but, in order to give a more accurate idea of the procedure, a listing of topics covered with each group follows.

Seventh-Grade Boys

A. Attendance, tardiness, excuses B. Wholesome respect for girls

C. Use and care of rest rooms

D. Awards-Athletic, G. O., Attendance, Scholarship E. Records-How they are kept, good behavior, poor behavior

F. Personal dress (including hair styles)

G. Policy regarding gum chewing, smoking, carrying weapons, snowballing, defacing property
 H. Importance of asking for help, counseling program—opportunity provided to

request individual or group appointments (3 x 5 cards)

I. Participation in extracurricular activities

J. Block program and home room

Seventh-Grade Girls

A. Attendance regulations

B. Illness during day

D. Notes from parent or guardian to keep appointments and to cover absences

E. Care of rest rooms

- F. Policies regarding gum chewing, comic books, slacks, headscarfs, play things

 –(special emphasis)
- G. Policies regarding general conduct in the corridors, home rooms, classrooms, streets, dances, games
- H. G. O. awards-emphasis on first-(points omitted)
- The noon-hour program and doors to be used
 Tips on how to budget time and how to study

K. Disposition, personality, associates

L. Counseling program—opportunity provided to request individual appointments or appointments in groups of 2 to 5 (3 x 5 cards)

The fourth phase of Pattengill's orientation program is the provision of a seventh-grade parent night early in the fall. The main purpose of the evening is to give the parents the opportunity to meet their child's home-room and classroom teachers, and to renew acquaintance with counselors and administration. Home-room teachers explain the purposes of home rooms, the values of G. O. membership, types of assemblies, report card procedures, and review attendance and excuses.

Parents then follow the child's schedule for the day and learn from the classroom teachers the purpose of each course; how the course is impor-

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tant in the total school program and in the educational program; the scope and type of activities in the course of study; the classroom procedures used; grading; and homework. An opportunity for general questions is also provided in each classroom. The program closes with refreshments at which time a PTA committee works in cooperation with a committee from the faculty to provide a social hour.

Through evaluation of our program to date, we feel that this series of programs gives students, parents, and teachers a better understanding of each others problems and an awareness on the part of students that others have like problems and that they are not "alone" in their attempt to grow up.

TEACHER TRAINING REQUIREMENTS

On August 26, the New York State Board of Regents substantially raised the requirements for new high-school teachers. The acceptable minimum of college credits in science, mathematics, and foreign language will be dcubled. Dr. James E. Allen, State Commissioner of Education, is quoted in the New York Times of August 27 as saying that he considered this move the most dramatic and the most significant step so far in the direction of improving education. He said that, though the new requirements were not aimed at the often controversial "methods" courses, the inevitable effect will be to give them relatively less importance and to subordinate them to the "subject" courses. For science teachers, the science requirement under the new regulations is 42 semester hours. The new certification rules apply to teachers entering the high schools in 1963, thus giving the colleges time to make the necessary curriculum changes. —Educational Newsletter published by the American Institute of Physics

An Approach to 7th and 8th Grade Grouping

SAMUEL P. STRICKLAND

ONE of the things that interested me when I came to Easton, Massachusetts, as junior high-school principal, was the matter of grouping. At present, we are housing Grades 6, 7, and 8 in the building. However, after one more year, when a new Elementary School just voted will be completed, we hope to be made up of grades 7, 8, and 9.

The 6th grade still remains elementary in its makeup. Heterogeneous grouping but balanced off as much as possible is the method of student placement. The teachers group within their class for reading and arith-

metic.

As the students progress to grade 7, they are immediately placed into a three level grouping plan: 7-1 is the top level; 7-2 and 7-3 balance group—Level II—homogenous; 7-4, 7-5, and 7-6—heterogeneously grouped but balanced somewhat (*i.e.*, so many top, so many average, so many below average.) The considerations used to base decisions on student grouping were: teachers' recommendations, grades, IQ's, achievement tests, and any anecdotal information available.

The eighth grade grouping is done exactly the same way. However, at the end of ranking periods 1 and 2, any teacher may ask for a review of a student in either grade 7 or 8. When this happens, the guidance counselor will gather the information from all teachers concerned, and the decision for placement up or down, between levels, is made. Recommendations will go to the principal, and the move is made if it seems

the thing to do.

The primary objections to this method of grouping in grades 7 and 8 are:

1. Perhaps the idea of the top group immediately following the grade 6 routine was too sudden a change for some pupils.

2. It is difficult to place two divisions at Level II and keep them some-

what balanced.

3. The third level is almost impossible to keep the same in all three

4. Student changing now takes place between divisions, not levels.

Even teachers gear teaching toward Divisions 1-6, instead of levels.
 There are possibilities of numbers of groups to become interchanged as to abilities, i.e.,—3 better than 2.

Samuel P. Strickland is Principal of Easton Junior High School (Enrollment, grades 7-9, 525), North Easton, Massachusetts.

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7. Parents retained old prejudices of 6 lower than 5, etc., up and down the line.

8. When there is no definition of levels, there is no way knowledge can be brought to the public as to meaning of levels and divisions.

Individual differences is not defined enough.

10. Students become labelled too quickly.

 Student ranks are considered on the same basis throughout the entire grade.

On the plus side, these things stand out:

1. We are using core in English and social studies which tends to lessen the number of class changes per day for each student. This means that the same teacher has two consecutive periods with no class change.

2. This separates the ability divisions at earliest possible moment.

Teachers can work with and give out advanced information to top students from the start.

4. All students know their standing as to class level at start of grade 7.

5. All students know they can progress up and down.

6. All subject ranks are considered the same throughout the grade.

Teachers can gear their thinking and teaching toward a specific level from the start.

At the beginning of the year, the principal formed a teachers' council composed of teachers from grades 6, 7, and 8 to handle many school items up for discussion. Among these items was the idea of grouping. We met once a month and each time discussed further the grouping situation. Starting with the November meeting, the principal invited Superintendent of Schools Philip M. Hallowell, whose wisdom and guidance helped in making the final decision. From the beginning, we all felt that there should be some differential between the various divisions of each class. But as to exactly how this should take place, to be of the most benefit to the students, was the ever burning question. Finally, at the January meeting, it was decided to ask three parents from each sixthgrade room to discuss the various plans with us to help our thinking in formulating grade 7 grouping. The parents asked were, one from a high pupil in each room, one from an average, and one from a below average student. They did not know this arrangement when we finally had our meeting in February.

The following was attached to a set of eight plans which were discussed during this meeting:

Welcome and thank you for your kindness in coming this afternoon. We have asked you to come here to discuss with us our next year's grouping plans. This is merely an opportunity for us to express our opinions. No decisions will be made at this time.

Some of our teachers are here who have been meeting from time to time as a committee. One of the items that we have been discussing is the matter of grouping. We have now reached a point where we would like to ask your opinion.

Attached please find some plans that we would like to discuss with you. Also, you will find a pencil and a blank piece of paper for your convenience. Please do not hesitate to ask questions or to give your opinions throughout this meeting. Thank you very much for taking your time to meet with us today.

The meeting began with coffee and cake served by our National Junior Honor Society. Afterward each parent and teacher introduced themselves. Then the matter of discussion and offering opinions of each and every group was started. Once again, our superintendent of schools met with us and gave us much from his experience. During the entire period of about two hours, many helpful facts were learned.

1. All parents seemed to feel there should be some type of grouping.

Many welcomed the opportunity of being asked to express an opinion.
 They were all concerned with the best welfare of all children.

4. No one came to gripe, just to help.

5. Teachers expressed the way they felt about grouping.

All felt that we here at school should control decision and would abide by it.

From all of this very enjoyable medium, the committee met again in March and formulated a grouping arrangement for grades 7 and 8. Grade 7 was divided in half as to ability, teachers' recommendations, etc. Each half of grade 8 was divided into three divisions, balanced out as evenly as possible. The basic reasoning for this decision as to grade 7 grouping was as follows:

By dividing the class in half, we would most probably be able to contain all prospective college students in the upper half and all non-college in the lower half.

2. A period of adjustment would now enter into being before the definite division lines were drawn. This is the most important point. All schools, no doubt, are confronted with the youngsters that never seem to be able to adjust themselves to this sudden change and, consequently, become so far behind that they never recover. A great many of them should be doing very good work.

3. A consideration, as far as teachers are concerned, is the single preparation per level and not 2 or 3 as in the case when the line of division breakdown

is definitely defined.

4. If any shifts are to be made educationally, only those involving definite

level changes need be considered.

5. We will be able to balance off all divisions and not have the concern that one is better than another whereby teachers can teach to a level not a specified division (i.e. we plan to designate them by colors rather than numbers).

All work required and accomplished will be for a level which will make it available to more students rather than concentrating on a certain few.

In our consideration of the grade 7 problem, we were trying to devise something that would benefit the individual pupils best. This seems to be the method that answers our thinking best.

When we considered the grade 8 problem, it was felt that here we could become more definite as to drawing lines and prepare the students

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for curriculum demarcation and choices beginning in grade 9. The class was divided into half with the upper half homogeneously grouped into three sections. The methods of selection mentioned above were used for this placement with the bottom half of the class remaining heterogeneously grouped.

The feeling at this point (grade 8) in the youngster's education is that the time for a concrete dividing line in the upper half of the class should be made and adhered to, as this is a place where they are now ready for this procedure.

We, here at Easton Junior High School, feel that this covers all the phases of good grouping for Grades 7 and 8 with the exception of one thing; namely, the matter of grouping by subjects. If it were possible, we feel this should be done. However, because of the number of pupils, about 200 per grade, it cannot be managed due to obvious scheduling conflicts.

PUTTING SOME ENGLISH ON IT

The hard-pressed English teacher, heading back to her high school classes, is apt to discover that her biggest dilemma has not solved itself over the summer. On the one hand, she hears college professors, businessmen, and parents complaining that today's youngsters simply don't know how to compose clear, interesting English prose because they don't get enough practice in school . . . and on the other hand, she can survey the 175 students she has each day in class, and try to figure out how she can spend 23 hours a week grading one weekly composition from each.

Some schools are getting around this problem, reports the National Education Association, by employing "theme readers"—college-trained housewives with a major in English, or former English teachers who read and correct students' compositions under the teacher's supervision.

In San Marco, California, for example, such readers put in 80 hours per month correcting themes and other written work. In Villa Park, Illinois, 90 "regulars" and 5 alternate readers mark student work ranging from paragraphs to research papers. Ithaca, N.Y.; Jackson, Mississippi; and Washington, D.C., are other school systems reporting such assistance to the English instructors. All of these readers are paid anywhere from \$1.25 to \$2 an hour, except in Washington where the 20 helpers who review papers for some 90 pupils earn \$300 a year. Most do the work at home.

Is it working? The answers are enthusiastic. Educators report that the innovation really has increased the amount and quality of written work and that not only teachers, but also students appreciate the extra attention for their efforts. One noted that under this system in his town, English teachers doubled the number of themes assigned in the course of the year.

Plan for Curriculum Improvement

WAYNE V. ASHMORE

SEVERAL conditions must exist before intelligent changes can be achieved in the curriculum of any school. First, the faculty must realize that there are weaknesses in the existing program and be willing to exert the effort necessary to improve the situation. Second, the community must be prepared to accept the changes. Third, some one individual must be so vitally concerned with the welfare of the students that he will take the initiative and work for the desired changes with unceasing effort and enthusiasm. The principal is the logical person to assume this leadership. He knows his students, his faculty, and his community better than anyone else. He is in a position to understand and evaluate the total school program. He has the authority and the influence to get the job done. By the very nature of his position, he becomes the ideal choice to plan, promote, and follow through on any type curriculum change.

Improvements do not just happen. Intelligent leadership is required to realize them. They are the results of careful planning, good organization, and hard work. To bring them into existence, the cooperation of the faculty and the community must be secured. This cooperation is easier to acquire when good attitudes have been established. Desirable attitudes are based on a thorough knowledge of existing conditions and complete awareness of any needed change. Before undertaking any significant curriculum revision, the principal should make certain that he has the support of all persons concerned. It is his responsibility to present needs, to propose and interpret desired changes, to select and organize his staff, and to lead them vigorously from start to finish. He has to build and maintain good will in the community. He must furnish all necessary materials and guide faculty members in using them. He must stimulate enthusiasm for his program. In fact, he must become the guiding influence from the inception of the idea-the master planner, the coordinator of all efforts, the chief critic, and the inspiration of all parties concerned. Certainly, it will take a strong and intelligent person to qualify for this type of leadership.

The writer would like to present a very fine example of how one principal initiated action to bring about decided improvement in the curriculum of a junior high school. Five years ago he was assigned to a new school with an enrollment of approximately 1,000 students. The school plant was beautiful and modern in every respect. It is located in

Wayne V. Ashmore is Principal of the Elizabeth Cobb Junior High School Enrollment, grades 7-9, 1,100), Tallahassee, Florida.

a fairly progressive community of some 40,000 people. Economically, most of the families are of the middle class type. Culturally, they are much above the average. The city is the seat of a large university and many branches of the state government. For this reason, the educational

standards are rather high.

The principal, Mr. Roberts, inherited ten teachers from other schools. These formed the nucleus of an alert and competent faculty. However, several of them were experienced teachers with strong convictions, and therefore, rather difficult to lead. The program had been planned and evaluated by Mr. Roberts and a few available teachers. They considered it a sound program. While the emphasis was on the basic subjects, ample provisions had been made for instruction in art, music, industrial arts, homemaking, and physical education. Most of the faculty thought the plan good and put it into operation with a great deal of enthusiasm. However, the principal was not completely satisfied. He knew the program, while good, was far from taking care of all the needs of all the students. In particular, the very bright and the very slow students were not being provided for. Consequently, from the day school opened, he was constantly evaluating, planning and laying the foundation for certain curriculum changes he thought necessary to provide a better program for his students. He talked with many people; parents, teachers, and students, always trying to win over key persons to his way of thinking.

With slight variations, the program was operated for three years as originally planned. During this period, Mr. Roberts was continually striving to develop good will in the community and a progressive spirit within his faculty. By the end of the third year, he had evaluated his program, knew its weaknesses, and knew exactly what changes were desirable. He felt his faculty and his parents were ready to accept certain revisions. He had in mind three particular changes: developing a full-time reading program for about one third of the students, initiating a closed lunch period, and setting up a program for limited grouping to care better for the needs of the real slow and the very bright students. His first step was to put his ideas on paper, along with a definite plan of

activity to bring them to fruition.

Mr. Roberts' next step was to secure the approval of the county superintendent and the general supervisor of instruction. He realized he must have their active support to accomplish his purpose. Since he had been in contact with them all along, it was not too difficult to secure their aid. He was ready now to present his plans to his total faculty. This was done about the middle of the first semester. The plan was presented in detail, not only the changes desired, but also the organization needed to bring them into being. After some discussion, he distributed certain pertinent information and suggested that the faculty think about the proposals for a week or two and be prepared to offer suggestions at a later date. Two weeks later, a full discussion was scheduled. Each teacher was encouraged to express herself openly and frankly. Many good ideas came out

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prine curl to a The ted in of this meeting. As several key people had been working with the principal from the beginning, it was fairly easy to convince the group that the proposed changes were good and should be made. Committees were set

up and procedures adopted. It was a splendid beginning.

At this time Mr. Roberts considered it advisable to bring the parents into the picture. He had already talked with many of them, both individually and in small groups. Now he was ready to present his program to the total group. This was done at a regular parents' meeting. He had asked for time on the program many months before this. Briefly, he reviewed the history of the school, discussed the program as it currently existed, pointed out what changes were needed, and stated what he proposed to do. The parents were enthusiastic. The principal then asked that an advisory committee be set up to work with him and the faculty. This was done.

The next step was to feel out the students and see how they felt toward the proposed changes. This was done through the student council. With their help, the new program was presented and discussed in each home room. Each group had an opportunity to make recommendations. These were compiled by the student council and passed on to the principal. All recommendations were carefully studied by the faculty and the parent

advisory group.

Before any grouping could be done, a great deal of information had to be collected on each student. Realizing that records alone would not be sufficient, Mr. Roberts suggested that help be asked from the current teachers of each student. Such information could easily be secured on students attending the school under study. However, the committee needed the same data on sixth-grade students who would transfer to the junior high school during the summer. This situation posed a more difficult problem. It required the cooperation of many sixth-grade teachers who were working in six different elementary schools. These teachers had to be convinced of the need for the curriculum changes if their fullest cooperation was to be secured. The following procedure was followed. First, Mr. Roberts explained his program to the elementary-school principals and solicited their help. He requested the loan of all sixthgrade teachers for a meeting in the near future. As all faculty meetings were held on the same day of the week, this was easy to arrange. In order to allow ample time for the teachers to study their students and to collect the information requested of them, this very important meeting was scheduled early in the second semester. The elementary-school teachers were invited as guests of the junior high-school faculty. There was a brief social hour, with refreshments, before the business session. The principal then explained fully to the visitors the curriculum changes he had in mind, why they were needed, and how they, as elementary teachers, could be of tremendous help in carrying out the project. The outcome of the meeting was gratifying. Not only did the visitors offer to aid in the program, but they also contributed suggestions which were of much help later on.

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From this point on, the project really began to develop. Mr. Roberts had done a real selling job to all parties concerned. Each person knew his work and performed it proficiently. The role of the principal now was to coordinate, to make helpful suggestions, and to assimilate. He made regular visits to each elementary school. He planned with his own faculty and began working on schedules. In securing the information he desired from the elementary-school teachers, Mr. Roberts developed into a superior diplomat. Most of them followed through in fine order, but a few, as usual, required constant encouragement and occasionally a little prodding. It is second nature with some people to procrastinate. Teachers are no exceptions. To get work out of those he has no authority over and to get it done his way is a real test of any principal's leadership.

Finally, the semester was over. All necessary information was in the principal's office. The next step was a very important one. Mr. Roberts and a small committee of teachers assembled the data, studied them carefully, along with student records which were available, and began to fit the students into the schedule for the next year. Every record of any type and every recommendation that had been turned in were carefully gone over. It took most of the summer to do this, but, when it was finished, they felt that a worth-while achievement had been accomplished and that the over-all program would be greatly improved as a result.

The new program has been in operation for quite some time. The faculty members consider it a vast improvement over the old one and are happy over the way it is working out. The happiest of all is Mr. Roberts. He knows that without great effort and leadership on his part, the improvements could never have been realized. However, like all true leaders, he is already planning what the next revision should be.

The above is an excellent example of vigorous and intelligent leadership by one principal in improving the curriculum of his school. There is much that can be learned from his experiences.

A Plan for Studying the Junior High-School Program

NANCY L. ARNEZ

HOUSTON Junior High School is a converted senior high school located near a business area in Baltimore, Maryland. The conversion was affected in the school district due to shifts in the population which were caused by the urban redevelopment program. The building houses approximately 1,800 Negro youth whose parents' occupations range from unskilled laboring jobs to those of the professions. There has been little or no attempt to examine the present program in the light of attitudes which teachers have toward the school and education generally and which students have toward the present program.

The purpose of this study was to develop a proposed plan of program development for the junior high school. It was believed that a sound approach to the study of curriculum is through an analysis of attitudes which teachers and students have toward their school. This study was intended to provide the junior high school with the basic information

necessary for conducting this type of study of the curriculum.

The major literature which deals with the attitudes of students and teachers toward educational programs was reviewed. The second step was to describe the major aspects of the school—the instructional program, the extracurricular provisions, and the special services such as guidance, library, health, and cafeteria.

The teachers were described in terms of their professional preparation,

years of service, and membership in professional organizations.

To obtain a better understanding of those for whom the current educational program at Houston is designed, a study was made of the students in terms of such factors as intellectual ability, records of attendance, academic achievement, and parents' occupations. The group selected for study included approximately one fourth of the 1,800 boys and girls on each of the three grade levels of the school (7th, 8th, and 9th) and consisted of a sampling from the slow, the regular, and the advanced classes in each grade level.

The Illinois Inventory of Pupil Opinion and the Illinois Inventory of Teacher Opinion were administered to 380 students and 75 teachers of the school. From an analysis of the attitudes of the students and the teachers of the junior high school, implications and suggestions for the

further development of the program were presented.

Nancy L. Amez wrote a digest of a Doctoral on the subject of "The Development of a Proposed Plan of Program Study for Houston Junior High School, Baltimore, Maryland." Address: Windsor Court Apartments K-2, 2111-25 Garrison Boulevard, Baltimore 16, Maryland.

PART IV

Some Tasks for Principals and Teachers

The Critical Characteristics of an **Effective Teacher**

RUSSELL N. CASSEL and W. LLOYD JOHNS

LHIS is the second in a series of studies which have been planned as a means of assessing the notions of school principals and central office administrative personnel in the Fontana Unified School District, California, as to what constitutes an effective teacher. This particular study, more specifically, is concerned with identifying, describing, and accomplishing a functional grouping of certain critical characteristics used by referenced principals and administrative personnel for describing the typical and outstanding effective teachers.

Currently, the Fontana school personnel are engaged in a research project, under Title VII of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA), Research in New Educational Media, where the use of closed circuit television is being evaluated as a means for the in-service education of teachers. The basic premise of this study is that effective in-service education of teachers must have immediate and ultimate objectives determined largely by the notions of the principals and administrative personnel responsible for the instructional program where teachers are involved. Accordingly, the findings of this study hold important significance as to whether any in-service education program for teachers in Fontana is effective or not; as well as the degree of such effectiveness.

Sources of Data

Teacher Effectiveness Reports

More than 1,000 semi-annual teacher effectiveness reports accomplished by Fontana principals during the past two years were examined, and the critical characteristics used in these records for describing both the effective and the ineffective teachers were listed.

Russell N. Cassel is Child Guidance Consultant and W. Lloyd Johns is Principal of the Sequoia Junior High School, Fontana Unified School District, 9680 Citrus Avenue, Fontana, California.

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Develop-School, 25 GarCritical Incident Study

A modified version of the "Flanagan Critical Incident" technique was utilized in addition to the extracting of critical characteristics from the teacher effectiveness reports. The specific technique with instructions for implementation was as follows: First, all principals and central office administrative personnel were asked, "Think of the most outstanding effective teacher of your acquaintance or experience, and indicate, on the blue card just handed you (2 x 5 inch ruled), the ten or dozen critical characteristics which this person had that made you think he was so effective and outstanding." Second, additional instructions were as follows, "Think, now, of the weakest and most ineffective teacher of your acquaintance or experience and indicate, on the yellow card just handed you, the ten or a dozen critical characteristics which you think this teacher had that made him so ineffective."

FINDINGS

More than 22,500 critical characteristics were tabulated, when the survey was complete. These were indicative of the critical characteristics of both the effective and the ineffective teachers. The first step used in processing the statements was to edit them for ambiguity and redundancy. Following this, all positively stated items (indicative of an effective teacher) were paired with the corresponding negatively stated items (indicative of ineffective teacher). Only in four different instances were no positively stated items included for negatively stated ones: (1) fails to pay bills on time, (2) is an habitual drunk, (3) dates other men's wives, and (4) dates own students. Generally, items mentioned fewer than two dozen times were incorporated under related and broader statements of the same or a similar concept. In several instances this could not be done and were included as separate items. There were, of course, many more positively stated items than there were negatively stated ones.

Following this, the more than 22,500 positively stated critical characteristics of an effective teacher were arranged into groupings of related items in terms of two dimensions: (1) functional, and (2) relational. In terms of the functional dimension, three separate and independent categories were identified: application, qualifications, and preparation; and

with relational categories under each as indicated:

TEACHER APPLICATION

	Number
Uses Effective Teaching Techniques	3,686
1. Causes learning activity to be meaningful.	703
2. Learning activity is student centered.	533
Provides for self-participation by students.	349
4. Provides periodic evaluation of students' progress and growth.	330
5. Has adequate lesson planning.	254
6. Uses instructional materials and aids effectively.	237
7 Provides varied experiences for students	213

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		Number
8.	Guidance of learning reaches individual continuously.	203
9.		179
10.		173
11.		107
12.	Pupils are aware of the objectives for each lesson.	89
13.		79
14.	Provides adequate provisions for student research.	71
15.	Learning program is experienced centered.	71
16.	Tends to generate learning activity from interests of students.	52
17.		43
Us	es Sound and Effective Psychology	2,955
1.	Helps students evaluate their growth and progress.	503
2.		430
3.	Provides for individual differences effectively at all times.	398
4.		370
5.	Is sympathetic and understanding with students.	304
6.	Maintains effective discipline and class control.	277
7.	Recognizes the social and emotional needs of students.	217
8.	Paces the difficulty of learning activity effectively.	210
9.	Activity involvement used as chief means for discipline control.	170
10.	Is concerned with moral and spiritual values of students.	43
11.	Respects sacredness of individual's intimate and private life.	33
Dis	plays Effective Human Relations	2,634
1.	Gets along well with others.	802
2.	Shows genuine warmth and respect for students and adults.	400
3.	Has personal concern for welfare of students.	308
4.	Is well liked by students.	295
5.	Participates willingly in extra- and co-curricular activities.	283
6.	Works cooperatively with others.	133
7.	Has good rapport with students at all times.	103
8.	Is well liked by colleagues.	93
9.	Is a good listener.	67
10.	Is well liked by parents of his or her students.	47
11.	Accepts recognition graciously.	42
12.	Accepts constructive criticism well.	38
13.	Does not stoop to petty "bickering."	23
Has	Sound and Effective Community Relations	2,227
1.	Interprets school program to community effectively.	403
2.	Is a good public relations agent for the school.	377
3.	Is interested in and participates in community activities.	339
4.	Works understandingly and cooperatively with parents.	328
5.	Supports and participates in parent-teacher activities.	270
6.	Makes effective uses of available community resources.	197
7.	Has community belongingness and acceptance.	173
8	Promotes the causes of education to the public	1.40

8. Promotes the causes of education to the public.

		Number
Exe	ercises Effective Leadership	1,861
1.		312
2.	Has good leadership ability and exercises it continuously.	224
3.	Makes sound and timely decisions.	195
4.	Has good organizational ability and exercises it effectively.	183
5.	Encourages students to make their own decisions.	163
6.	Expeditiously assumes appropriote role of leader or follower.	119
7.	Carries out group decisions and school rules with dispatch.	114
8.	Sets realistic goals for students and self in teacher role.	107
9.	Sets good example for students by own behavior.	83
10.	Is willing to try new ideas that appear sound.	79
11.	Is prompt and reliable in assuming appropriate responsibility.	73
12.	Gives appropriate credit to those deserving recognition.	71
13.	Always expects the best.	63
14.	After expressing own opinions, accepts group decisions well.	41
15.	Has ability to follow through and practices it effectively.	21
16.	Has the respect of both students and colleagues	13
Dis	plays Sound Professional Bearing	1,086
1.	Has teacher belongingness and identification.	211
2.	Is continuously growing professionally.	183
3.	Dresses appropriately and is well groomed.	124
4.	Speaks clearly, using good English in a well-modulated voice.	117
5.	Has a genuine acceptance of students.	96
6.	Is active on school committees.	73
7.	Thoroughly enjoys teaching.	70
8.	Has varied background and experiences.	56
9.	Own educational philosophy is in agreement with administration.	48
10.	Has a healthy regard for research findings.	42
11.	The state of the s	39
12.	Can admit not knowing, but always finds out the answers.	27
	TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS	
Has	Good Personality Attributes	2,657
1.	Has a dynamic personality.	560
2.	Has good emotional adjustment, and is calm and mature.	367
3.	Has a good sense of humor.	349
4.	Is optimistic in outlook and planning.	239
5.	Is enthusiastic and zealous in endeavor.	191
6.	Adjusts readily to change.	163
7.	Is warm and friendly to students and colleagues.	140
8.	Is very approachable.	140
9.	Has good insight into own personality and problems.	103
10.	Has a feeling of good status with colleagues.	71
11.	Has good mental health.	64
12.	Is physically able to perform duties effectively.	60
13.	Attempts to correct undesirable mannerisms and habits.	55
14.	Knows how to relax and practices it.	34

		Number
15.	Has a flair for the dramatic-agitated thinking.	34
16.		27
17.		21
18.		17
19.		13
20.		9
На	s Sound Character Patterns	1,645
1.	Uses discretion in speaking about colleagues or school.	349
2.		332
3.	Is ethical in dealing with others.	277
4.		272
5.	Is dependable and reliable.	185
6.	Practices what he preaches.	142
7.	Is loyal to own ideas.	42
8.	Assumes moral obligation for students' growth.	23
9.	Is not afraid to work.	23
Evi	idences Sound Intellectual Capability	1,013
1.	Has good intelligence and exercises sound judgment.	387
2.	Possesses excellent imagination.	340
3.	Is versatile in talents.	182
4.	Has creative ability and evidences it daily.	104
	Teacher Preparation	
Ha	s Sound Professional Preparation	1.680
1.	Has adequate and effective subject matter competency.	876
2.	Keeps current with educational trends and practices.	460
3.	Is scholastically and culturally well prepared.	340
4.		4
Ha	s Sound Psychological Preparation	1,145

SUMMARY

This is the second in a series of studies which have been planned as a means of assessing the notions of school principals and central administrative personnel in Fontana Unified School District as to what constitutes an effective teacher. This particular study is concerned with identifying, describing, and functionally grouping the critical characteristics of an effective teacher as envisioned by referenced personnel.

The findings of this study are to be used as one of the means of assessing the effectiveness of a closed circuit television for the in-service education of teachers in Fontana under a Title VII grant of the National

Defense Education Act, Research in New Educational Media.

Has an effective understanding of children.

Has good knowledge of child growth and development.

Has and displays an effective knowledge of counseling.

More than 22,500 critical characteristics were tabulated, and they appeared to distribute logically into three functional groups, and with numerous relational groupings under each: (1) teacher application, (2) teacher qualifications, and (3) teacher preparation.

SELECTED REFERENCES

- Cassel, R. N., A Proposed Program for the In-service Training of Teachers in the Fontana Unified Schools, California Elementary Principals Journal. (pending)
- Cassel, R. N., and W. L. Johns, Basic Principles of Effective Teaching Based on Adjectives Used by School Principals in Teacher Efficiency Reports (unpublished).
- Flanagan, J. C., The Critical Incident Technique, Psychological Bulletin, July 1954, pp. 327-58.

TWO FILMS IN THE BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES

The University of California has announced the release of *The World Within*, a teaching film which offers an over-all concept of parasitology and its relation to biology and medicine. A graphic description of the never-ending battle against man's deadliest enemy, the parasite, the film is designed to stimulate discussion and interest in the field of parasitology as well as to point up the importance of sanitation in combatting the spread of parasitic diseases. By means of a unique combination of micro-cinematography, art work, and live action, the film shows how parasitism may be found among plants, animals, and viruses and how parasites differ from other organisms which live together symbiotically. Here one sees how the parasite emerges from the microscopic world of disease-causing viruses and bacteria to the visible range of fleas, ticks, lice, and parasitic worms which themselves may cause disease in man and animals. The film—made possible by a training grant from the National Heart Institute, U.S. Public Health Service—is 16mm, sound, color; running time is 27 minutes.

The other film is The Life and Death of a Cell. An important visual aid in the field of cell physiology, the film presents a clear and cogent explanation of how the cell embodies all the functions and properties common to living things. Using the amoeba proteus to illustrate the life process, the description is twofold: observational and experimental. The first section of the film, an imaginative combination of animation and micro-cinematography, shows habitat, morphological details, feeding, digestion, and egestion of the amoeba. Moving over to the experimental section, one sees, by means of microsurgery, the importance of the nucleus which is then followed by a sequence showing cell division. The final section shows how the inability of the cell to adjust to its environment leads eventually to its death. The film concludes with a summary of the material covered, leaving the viewer with a deeper and more lasting impression This film is 16mm, color, sound; running time 22 minutes. Both film are available at \$195 each and are also available for rental from the Department of Visual Communication, University Extension, University of California, Los Angeles 24, California.

Another Look at the Junior High-School Principalship

SAMUEL H. POPPER

THERE was a time in the recent past when the high-school principal-ship was regarded as a stepping stone to the superintendency. It was a case of the talented administrator moving up to the big time, much in the same way as a minor league ball player dreams of the glamour, money, and excitement of the big leagues. However, this pattern of mobility within the profession has now lost much of its force.

The high-school principalship has assumed the status of a lifetime career. This fact finds acknowledgement in preparation programs of major institutions offering educational administration and in AASA-

NASSP relationships.

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Two major factors have contributed to the status growth of the high-school principal. The first of these is the emergence of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals as a professionally mature and skillfully managed body. The other is the W. K. Kellogg Foundation-sponsored Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA). Research activities that have evolved from the latter program since its inception in the early 1950's have clearly demonstrated that principles of administration are generic to the administrative enterprise at all levels of school organization. The school administrator, be he principal or general superintendent, is first and foremost an educational leader. Hence, the core of modern-day preparation programs in educational administration is the same for the superintendent and the secondary-school principal. Indeed, it is now recognized that the leadership syndrome is essential to administrative behavior regardless of the enterprise in which it is applied.

Unhappily, not all of the professional good fortune which has come to the high-school principal in recent years is shared by his blood brother in the junior high school. In all too many school districts, the junior high-school principalship is still a way station in the frenetic climb from the classroom to high-school administration. It is rare to find in such districts talented aspirants for administrative posts who are willing to accept the junior high-school principalship as a lifetime career position. What accounts for the force of this upward mobility? More often than not,

it is money!

Samuel H. Popper is Associate Professor of Educational Administration, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

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As long as school districts persist in favoring the high-school principal-ship in the salary schedule, efforts to raise the professional status of the junior high-school principal will go unrewarded. The lure of the differential is too much to resist. Instance after instance can be cited of the able junior high-school principal who was rewarded with a *promotion* to the high school. Little wonder the elder statesmen of the junior high-school movement are graying faster than they should. The junior high school is begging for aggressive new leadership, but no sooner does a promising talent appear on the NASSP scene and he is *promoted* out of eligibility. Moreover, this is happening at a time when the junior high school is standing at the threshold of a golden new era of expansion. What rationale is offered in support of this pattern?

The usual line of argument posits two themes in defense of the salary differential. First, the high-school principal works harder and/or longer hours than does his peer in the junior high school. Second, the salary differential is allowed because of larger pupil enrollment in the high school. A modified form of the latter theme is the current position of the NASSP Executive Committee. Enrollment is recommended as a guideline in determining maximum salaries for secondary-school prin-

cipals.1 Thus is an otherwise sound proposal blemished.

There is no questioning the fair-mindedness of those who justify the differential for these reasons. Indeed, on the face of it, the line of argu-

ment seems both equitable and valid. But is it?

What is a secondary-school principal? The best of current professional literature defines him as an educational leader. He applies leadership skill at every point of contact with his major reference groups in the course of performing tasks necessary to keep his school at the peak of efficiency. In the exercise of his administrative stewardship, the secondary-school principal applies himself to such major tasks as curriculum development, staff improvement, program refinement, perfecting channels of communication, supervision, and school-community relations. The adroit performance of these tasks calls for extensive technical skill as well as deep insights drawn from the social and behavioral sciences. These he obtains in pre-professional study and from the preparation program for administrators.

Note that the reference heretofore has been to the "secondary-school principal," not to the "high-school principal" or to the "junior high-school principal." This is no accident! It merely attests to the fact that in modern-day preparation programs for secondary-school administrators,

¹ See "What Salary for You?" Statement approved by the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, October 1, 1957. The Executive Committee suggests three categories of high schools: (a) a school under 500; (b) a school of 500-1,000; and (c) a school of 1,000-2,500. With the latter excepted, the NASSP statement is good. It provides for percentage ratios above teachers' maximum salaries, it encourages employment of the secondary-school principal on a twelvemonth schedule, because, "Administrative leadership of a secondary school requires a full-time all-year responsibility," and it urges school boards to compensate additional professional preparation.

the preparation requirements for high-school and junior high-school principals, in time and content, is more alike than not.

The argument which holds that a high-school principal works harder and/or longer hours is altogether untenable, chiefly because it is subjective. Here is one illustration: A principal of a large high school might allow little time in his schedule for school-community relations, mainly because public relations values are beyond his ken, while the principal of a small junior high school might give long hours to the cultivation of good school-community relationships. To judge the quality of administrative behavior in vital task areas is meaningful, to quantify it by hour units for judgment purposes its fatuous

If the "hour and/or work load" argument is untenable, then the enrollment criterion for determining the secondary-school principal's salary is inequitable. It is generally accepted that the ideal enrollment for a high school is 1,500, for a junior high school 800. Those who now advocate the cluster plan for junior high-school buildings establish an enrollment of from 300 to 350 as optimum for each of three wings. In either case, the junior high-school principal doesn't stand a realistic chance of acquiring salary parity with the high-school principal. Nonetheless, high-school and junior high-school principals are required to exercise educational leadership in equal measure in the same major task areas.

A lifetime career in the junior high school is likely to become more attractive to sharp aspirants for administrative positions once school districts abandon the salary differential in secondary-school administration. By this action, the dollar-embodied status symbol at the high-school level will lose its now strong allure for able junior high-school principals. New leaders will emerge and they will stay in the junior high school to fructify the grand educational promise its pioneering founders envisioned for it. Therefore, in the interest of advancing the junior high-school movement on the eve of anticipated expansion and in the interest of encouraging nascent leadership in this sensitive area of school organization, it would seem most judicious at this time to reconsider the status of the junior high-school principalship with an enlightened perspective.

AN ENTIRE CLASS OF GRADUATES ATTEND COLLEGE

Thirty-seven of the 62 students who were graduated this year from the Benjamin Franklin Senior High School, New Orleans, Louisiana, will receive a total of \$103,440 in scholarships during the next four years. An additional \$39,890 has been refused, making a grand total of \$142,330 in scholarship aid offered to this first graduating class. Sixty-one of the graduates will attend college; one, the Ballet Russe School in New York. Benjamin Franklin, opened in September 1957 to students with demonstrated exceptional ability in academic fields, is designed to assure success in college study by providing thorough preparation and a program of enrichment in high school.—Education U.S.A., NEA

And Suddenly There Was a Junior High School

SAMUEL F. THOMAS

OR many years the work of the instrumental music department of Omaha's North High School had gone on much the same in this city's K-8-4 school system. Each September a few hopeful instrumentalists would enter North High from the neighboring elementary schools, as well prepared as could be expected. They had experienced once a week instruction from a traveling music teacher mostly in heterogeneous groups. To maintain a one-hundred-piece band and a ninety-piece orchestra, each with complete instrumentation, meant that many instruments each year had to be started in the ninth-grade beginners' classes and continued through the tenth-grade intermediate classes. With hard work most students could qualify for one of the performing groups by their junior or senior years. Very seldom was it possible to perform music of more than grade III or IV difficulty. Usually a small number of students who were serious enough about their music to be studying privately would "spark" the entire organization. But with only four years of intensive training, the pupils did a great job. The announcement by the Board of Education that the Omaha schools were preparing to go on the K-6-3-3 plan as soon as junior high schools could be built was cause for concern. Building satisfactory musical groups in four years was difficult enough, how could it be done in three?

Two years ago North Omaha's McMillan Junior High School opened its doors to eleven hundred fifty students. John Adams was chosen to teach its instrumental music. By the end of that first year, he had over three hundred students working in regularly scheduled classes, accomplishing more in a month than had been possible in an entire semester under the old system. He was a man who would take time to talk things over. It was our mutual desire to make articulation between junior high- and senior-school music a working reality. We found an hour a week that we could get together regularly for a chat. This was augmented by many evening phone calls. Problems were solved as they occurred and also in advance. The junior high school had a meager music library. Was there any suitable music for them in the senior high-school music library? Indeed there was, and music that will never again be needed by the senior high-school groups is now a part of the junior high-school library. Since the junior high school was now to be the training grounds, why not place the senior high-school instruments normally used by ninth- and tenth-grade beginners in the hands of selected seventh- and eighth-grade students who would arrive in senior high school at the time the instru-

Samuel F. Thomas is the Band Director of Omaha North High School, Omaha, Nebraska.

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mentation was needed? A plan has been worked out so that students playing instruments not normally purchased by them such as oboes, bassoons, alto and bass clarinets, and French horns will have three years of training in the junior high school and be ready on schedule to take the place of graduating senior high-school players. Since all junior high-school instrumentalists will come to senior high school with much more adequate technical ability and many hours of large group rehearsals and performances as part of their background, the level of senior high-school

performance will rise accordingly.

Every idea that may bring about a better relationship between the junior high- and senior high-school music departments is being explored. The writer attends all junior high-school concerts. He counsels with junior high-school students as needed. He attempts to get to know them personally before they enter high school and to find out their musical ambitions. Mr. Adams always is along as a chaperon when the highschool band goes to football games or takes trips. It is understood that he is in as complete authority over the band as the director. He also assumes the responsibility for placing his ninth-grade students in the correct senior high-school classes. It appears that dropouts came to an end with the old K-8-4 system. Junior high-school instrumentalists expect to continue music in senior high school and work hard to make themselves eligible for a senior high-school performing group their tenth year. They always know that Mr. Adams will be in the audience at the senior high-school concerts, and that he will take time afterwards to congratulate them on their continued musical accomplishments.

A SIX-WEEK SUMMER SESSION

The six-week summer session in instrument music, for many years held at North High School, is now using the spacious music wing of McMillan Junior High School. Around five hundred elementary-, junior high-, and senior high-school students are enrolled. Both junior high- and senior high-school-owned strings and wind instruments are used to help supply over one hundred beginners. Classes are set up for students in all stages of technical development, including advanced seventy-five piece band and orchestra groups each with complete instrumentation. The traveling elementary-school instrumental music teacher is one of the instructors in the summer session. Here he can see the results of his efforts in taking the initial steps in guiding talented students into the music program. He has an opportunity to start many fifth- and sixth-grade beginners who will be able to handle themselves very well in their own school music groups in September. His own students are inspired to greater efforts when they have a chance to play in larger groups and to see the many opportunities ahead in junior high-school music.

Each year becomes more exciting as the unlimited possibilities of a well-articulated instrumental music program continue to become apparent. Terpsichore and her sister Muses must have smiled when—suddenly

there was a junior high school.

Two Instruments for Evaluating Junior High Schools

J. LLOYD TRUMP

THE past several months have produced two instruments for evaluating junior high schools. One of these is entitled, An Instrument for the Self-Evaluation of Junior High Schools. Prepared by Dr. Wendell G. Anderson, Principal of Urbana Junior High School, Urbana, Illinois, the instrument was based upon a dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the doctorate at the University of Illinois. The other publication entitled, Junior High-School Evaluative Criteria, was recently published by the Department of Public Instruction of the State of Utah.

INSTRUMENT FOR SELF-EVALUATION

Dr. Anderson's program for the self-evaluation of junior high schools is presented in a 150-page duplicated document which may be purchased from the author for \$3.50. His address is 2507 East Main Street, Urbana, Illinois. The school and its program can be evaluated in terms of eight categories; namely, Philosophy; Staff; Student Population; The Setting—The School Within a Community; Curriculum—General Orientation; Curriculum—Specific Nature; Co-Curriculum; and Student Services. Each of the foregoing categories is to be viewed in three phases: an inventory of the present status of the educational program; an evaluation of the program of a junior high school by the staff in terms of their own objectives; and the action phase—a plan for the improvement of the educational program. Complete instructions are provided in the manual, An Instrument.

The procedures can be used in schools of various sizes. Dr. Anderson lists many purposes of the procedure and concludes his introduction by suggesting three uses which may be made of the completed instrument:

 Orient new teachers, supervisors, and administrators through their study of the completed Instrument.

Provide the members of a board of education with information about the program of a school.

Submit to visitors from the state office of public instruction in advance of their actual school visit to assist them in their evaluation of the program of the school.

J. Lloyd Trump is Associate Secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and Secretary of the Committee on Junior High-School Education, Washington, D. C.

The writer had the privilege of working quite closely with Dr. Anderson as he developed the instrument. Dr. Anderson carefully surveyed other important criteria statements that had been evolved in a number of other places. He selected those phases which seemed most appropriate for self-evaluation. His own instrument was tried out in a number of school settings. The procedures should be very helpful to any school interested in a self-evaluation project.

EVALUATIVE CRITERIA

The Utah Junior High-School Evaluative Criteria were evolved over a five-year period. The NASSP Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School provided both consultant help and some financial assistance in connection with this project on the basis that professional competencies of teachers would be better utilized as a result of the application of evaluative criteria.

The Utah Secondary-School Principals' Association took the lead in this project. The Association worked closely with the State Department of Public Instruction in giving general direction, as well as moral and financial support, to the project. A committee of the Association served as a Steering Committee. Quite a number of junior high schools in Utah participated in trial runs of the instrument.

The published criteria, 491 pages in length, may be purchased from the state of Utah, Department of Public Instruction, 223 State Capitol, Salt Lake City, Utah.

The contents of the criteria statement include the following:

- I. Recommended Organization Procedures for Evaluation—Faculty Responsibilities, Steering Committee, Subject Area Committees, Service Area Committees, Student Committee, Parent Visiting Committee, Educator Visiting Committee
- II. How To Mark
- III. How To Score

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- IV. Graphs, Forms, Summaries—Sectional Graph, Plans for Action, Plans Realized, Plans Not Completed, Teaching Format
- V. Materials, Information, and Facilities
- VI. Orientation of the Visiting Committee
- VII. A Suggested Visiting Committee Schedule

The Utah criteria provide both for self-evaluation as well as evaluation by a visiting committee. Parents and students are asked to participate along with the staff.

Although the Utah criteria are quite specific in providing scales for evaluation, much emphasis is placed on the need for local school experimentation to discover better ways of doing things. The Introduction emphasizes "A Forward Look." No effort is made to impose standards without recourse to further study.

OTHER GUIDES

These two instruments are added to those produced in a number of other states to assist in evaluating junior high schools. The California Association of Secondary-School Administrators has produced, Procedure for Appraising the Modern Junior High School. The State Departments of Instruction in Connecticut and Oklahoma have their respective manuals. Assessment Guide for Use in Junior High Schools and Manual of Evaluation of Junior High Schools. These guides supplement earlier work done in the Texas Junior High School Criteria Study.

THE NEED FOR REAPPRAISAL

The foregoing are called to the attention of readers to emphasize, first, that documents are readily available to assist local schools in evaluation of present programs, and second, that such appraisal is essential in re-affirming the basic purposes of junior high-school education, and seeing how those purposes are being achieved. This type of local action is the best guarantee for the continued favorable reaction of the public to the junior high school and its services to early adolescent youth.

MODERNIZING MATHEMATIC TEACHING

Professor Robert J. Wisner of Michigan State University at Oakland, will be executive director of the new two-year program of the Mathematical Association of America to modernize mathematics teaching. With a \$350,000 National Science Foundation grant, the association plans to develop new mathematics courses for future mathematics teachers, from elementary through college level, for students in engineering and physical sciences, and in biological and social sciences as well as undergraduates planning to go on to graduate study in mathematics.-Education U.S.A., NEA

DR. CONANT'S REPORT ON THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Dr. James Bryant Conant's year-long report on his study of the American junior high school has just been published by Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. It included about a dozen specific recommendations to improve junior high schools. Titled Recommendations for Education in the Junior High School Years: A Memorandum to School Boards, the report is a short one (48 pages, 50 cents, paperback). Some 40,000 copies will be distributed free to school superintendents.-Education U.S.A., NEA

The Book Column

Professional Books

BERKOWITZ, P. H., and E. P. ROTHMAN. The Disturbed Child. New York 3: New York University Press, 32 Washington Place. 1960. 204 pp. \$4. Chapters on the schizophrenic child, symptoms of organic malfunctioning, neuroses, sexual deviations, and the psychopathic personality illustrate various types of bizarre and hostile behavior. Programs to aid the maladjusted child in the general classroom are suggested. For more complex cases of deviation, methods of detection are outlined so that the teacher may refer the child for specialized help.

The role of the special school and the trained psycho-educational therapist are discussed in chapters dealing with personality projection through verbal expression, the creative arts, and the academic curriculum. The transcript of an actual class session in a psychiatric hospital is reprinted in full, together with a commentary on the significance of the conversations and activities. Case histories are cited throughout the book, material which was taken, in large part, from a collection of anecdotal and discipline records kept by public school

teachers.

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BLANCHARD, B. E. Destination Teaching. New York 3: Pageant Press, Inc., 101 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 79 pp. \$2.50. This book is an introduction to the teaching profession—its pitfalls and frustrations, its riches and rewards, its myths and realities. With incisive perception and pinprick humor, the author examines the whole complex of the teacher-student, teacher-administrator, teacher-parent relationship and demonstrates how these interpersonal relations dominate and often obscure the true business of education. Under his barbed wit, the author poses some serious questions about the state of American education, which has become so over-burdened with PTAs, teachers' fraternal organizations, "workshop" meetings, snap courses, and athletics uber-alles, that the American teacher has all he can do to retain some vestige of ethical purpose and professional pride.

BRUNER, J. S. The Process of Education. Cambridge 38: Harvard University Press, 79 Garden Street. 1960. 117 pp. \$2.75. The author concludes, on the basis of convincing evidence, that the basic concepts of science and the humanities can be grasped by children far earlier than has ever been thought possible. The task is to present the fundamental structure of the material to be learned in a form that can first be apprehended intuitively by the child, and then later, through instruction, to build upon this intuitive understanding. The important ideas of "structure" and "intuition," and their relation to intellectual development, are examined not only from a psychological point of view, but also from the practical standpoint of putting together and teaching a school

curriculum.

BUSBY, EDITH. Behind the Scenes at the Library. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue. 1960. 64 pp. \$2.25. A graphic account of the varied activities that are necessary to keep the services of our libraries in operation. Each step in the behind-the-scenes story of how books

are selected, purchased, classified, made ready for the shelves and the library's readers is explained in most interesting factual text and informative action photographs. The resources and services of the kinds of libraries in different parts of the United States have been included—the Library of Congress, public school, college, Special, Armed Services, U.S. Information, regional, and county libraries. In addition, specialized activities, such as bookmobiles, services to the blind, to "shut-ins," to the hospitalized and the disabled, dramatize the warm human interest that makes library work a fascinating and rewarding career.

CHANG, J. C. Pre-Communist China's Rural School and Community. Boston 20: The Christopher Publishing House, 1140 Columbus Avenue. 1960. 116 pp. \$3.75. In Pre-Communist China, according to available figures, six sevenths of the population of China proper lived in rural areas. Surveys showed that a large percentage of these people were illiterates. The main reasons given for this illiteracy were: first, a lack of rural schools and good teachers; second, the children were taught subjects wholly irrelevant to their life of farming, and, therefore, did not attend school; and third, most children attended school for

only a few years before marrying at an early age.

In 1934, a project sponsored by the Government of China, was begun under the Kiangsi Rural Welfare Service, to study and solve, if possible, this problem of rural education. For ten years, Dr. Jen Chi Chang was a member of this select group which studied every aspect of education in rural areas. Ten rural communities in Kiangsi province were selected to be studied, and these were to be compared with three rural communities of similar size in the United States. The findings of the Kiangsi Rural Welfare Service are presented in this volume—its aim being to raise the standards and goals of Chinese rural education in

the near future, making China a more progressive nation.

CULBERTSON, JACK; PAUL JACOBSON; and THEODORE RELLER. Administrative Relationships. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1960. 533 pp. This book presents 17 engrossing cases which deal with actual situations; thus bringing a sense of reality to the problems confronting educational administrators today. The case histories in this book contain data pertinent to such disciplines as psychology, political science, economics, and educational administration. Focusing attention on administrative behavior, the volume provides stimulating discussions of the cases by eminent authorities representing different social science backgrounds. Combining their knoweldge and opinions, these specialists spotlight the principles, purposes, and techniques in a broader training program for school administrators.

With each case furnishing a springboard for discussion, the volume encourages the use of creative mental power in solving problems, resolving conflicts, making decisions, adjusting to controversial situations, and developing insight in dealing with persons sympathetically. By the use of this modern case method instruction, the volume introduces the reader to a world of real people where he is able to *experience* the administrative process with its power conflicts and group interrelationships. It helps him advance from educational leadership to

educational statesmanship.

KNIGHT, D. M., editor. The Federal Government and Higher Education. Englewood, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1960. 214 pp. \$1.95. Chapter 1 discusses the purpose and policy in higher education; chapter 2, Federal policies and practices; chapter 3, the problems implicit in some of our present programs; chapter 4, extends it by describing the urgent and national problem which will

exist for higher education in the immediate future; and chapter 5 discusses the present problem, the need for order, the task of cooperation, five kinds of plan-

ning, dangers and dilemmas, and the nation's need.

Laboratories in the Classroom. New York 3: Science Materials Center, Inc., 59 Fourth Avenue. 1960. 96 pp. \$1.45. Twenty-seven leading science educators summarize the current problems confronting our schools, outline new programs to implement the present curricula, and suggest hopeful trends for the future. In this publication outstanding educators and creative classroom teachers answer three important questions: "What are the basic aims of science and mathematics education?" "What plans are being made to develop new curricula?" "What new procedures and materials are being considered?"

MILLER, G. A.; EUGENE GALANTER; and K. H. PRIBRAM. Plans and the Structure of Behavior. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company, 383 Madison Avenue. 1960. Ideas being developed in communication and computer theory are modifying the way behavioral scientists view living systems and are enriching our conception of what a human mechanism can be and do. In this book these ideas are applied to psychology. The result is an original

account of the psychology of the cognitive processes.

The fundamental problem dealt with is the way in which the knowledge people have constrains or determines what they do. The authors take as their point of departure the concept that an organism's plans are essentially the same as a computer's programs. The organism also has images, which contain all the accumulated organized knowledge about itself and its world. The central problem of the book is to describe the relation between the Image and the Plan.

The TOTE concept, which incorporates the important notion of feedback, is a fundamentally different explanation of behavior from that provided by the reflex arc. Discussing the organism as an information processing system adds new dimensions to such traditional psychological topics as intention, instinct, motor skills, personality, memory, and problem solving. At the same time, the authors foster an appreciation of the historical context in which theory and

research about the higher mental processes have developed.

NEWTON, J. R. Reading in Your School. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1960. 309 pp. \$5.95. This book, stressing the interrelatedness of both the elementary and secondary school, coordinates the work of classroom teachers, reading-related services, and the administration. It is superior to other books on this topic because of its excel-

lent orientational, coordinational, and administrative approach.

Among the topics covered are causes of poor reading, testing programs, the reading specialist, the school psychologist and special services, the reading program and parents, the administrator's role in reading, and the organization of school reading programs. Whenever possible, the author considers more than one solution to a particular reading problem, discussing alternative measures so that a school may evaluate several approaches before determining what is best for a particular situation.

The author ties the reading program into the larger administrative and instructional structure of the school, presenting the topics so that a school may evaluate its own reading program. It presumes a reading program under the direction of a reading specialist, reflecting a modern and widespread trend.

MARTIN, W. E. Facilities and Equipment for Science and Mathematics. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 136 pp. \$1.

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This publication contains requirements and instructional materials for elementary and secondary science and mathematics that are contained in the official school-building codes, guides, and handbooks of state departments of education. It also organizes and presents these requirements and recommendations in such a way as to show which states have them and which do not; and to compare the over-all coverage as to those elements of the school building or items of equipment which each state considers essential for carrying on effective science and mathematics instruction.

Only the requirements and recommendations related specifically to science and mathematics facilities and equipment are included in the study. General requirements applying to the school building proper, to general-usage facilities within or outside the building, or to facilities for curriculum areas other than science and mathematics are not included, since they did not fall within the scope of the study. Thirty-nine states have official, published codes or guides which contain requirements, recommendations, or suggestions for the types of facilities and equipment which should be provided in new school buildings.

McKELPIN, J. P., editor. Workshop for Principals. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Southern University Laboratory School, Southern Branch Post Office. 1960. 156 pp. This is a report of the 1959 workshop for principals at Southern University and A&M College. It is divided into four parts. First, it presents the plan of organization of the Workshop which has many implications and values for administrators; second, it includes presentations by consultants and resource persons which should serve to clarify concepts, beliefs, and practices relative to problems presented by Workshoppers; third, the report describes small group action and gives a general review of basic "team" problems, the guiding principles formulated, and procedures for resolving the difficulty; and fourth, it gives an evaluation statement without which no compilation of this kind would be complete.

MITCHELL, W. E. Records Retention: A Practical Guide. Syracuse 4, New York: Ellsworth Publishing Company, 314 Newcastle Road. 1959 (Dec.) 48 pp. (8½" x 11") \$5; 3 or more copies \$4 each. The main objective of this publication is to acquaint the reader with practical measures that can be taken to dispose of old business records. Unnecessary retention of records is costly. Costs are not limited to space. Employee time is wasted and unnecessary purchases of storage equipment are made. For smaller firms this cost may run into hundreds of dollars a year, for the larger firms, thousands of dollars. Furthermore, the storage of useless records with important records makes searching and finding needed information more difficult and, in some instances, impossible. A sloppy accumulation of records is an eyesore and a detriment to employee morale and reflects the attitude of management. This publication sets up steps to be taken in establishing a program that will retain the important and discard the "never-used."

MOORE, SONIA. The Stanislavski Method. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1960. 94 pp. \$2.95. This book is the first simplified guide, incorporating materials from Stanislavski's oral teaching as well as from his copious writings in Russian, studied by the author in the original language. Sonia Moore studied the Method in a studio of Stanislavski's Moscow Art Theater, and for this book she did additional research into every aspect of the Method as other artists and experts have written about it. Examples and exercises cover all the fundamentals, such as Stanislavski's use of action, "if,"

imagination, units and objectives, and adaptation. Actors, directors, coaches, and critics will find this book helpful, as will the student of the drama.

PATTERSON, FRANKLIN, and others. The Adolescent Citizen. New York 27: Friendship Press, 475 Riverside Drive. 1960. 400 pp. \$6. This book, involving both educational practitioners and experts in social research, presents a joint approach to this most important area. The first chapters discuss what has happened and what is happening in efforts to teach citizenship, relevant to the total life of the high school and in classroom instruction. The authors move on to examine pertinent social research in light of the problem and, in the closing chapters, deal with new perspectives in research and with how educators can use its findings to help American students become mature citizens.

POWELL, THEODORE. The School Bus Law. Middletown, Connecticut: Wesleyan University Press, 356 Washington Street. 1960. 346 pp. \$5. Hardly any question of public policy today is likely to engender less light and more heat than that of public bus service for pupils attending private nonprofit schools—mostly Catholic parochial schools. "Service for the child," say the proponents; "unconstitutional help to religion," those opposed call it; and both positions are maintained with varying appeals to reason, emotion, and prejudice.

This book tells the story of what happened in one state, Connecticut, when its people and legislature were called upon to find an answer. Without polemics, without taking sides, the author first examines the national view of church-state relations, the relevant Supreme Court decisions, and Connecticut's legal position and actual practices in the mid-1950's. He then turns to the heart of the matter: the school bus bill presented to the legislature in 1957. He shows who backed the measure and who opposed it; why it took the permissive form it did; the roles played in the ensuing debate by newspapers, citizens' groups, certain Catholic and Protestant clergymen, leaders of both major parties and a number of individual legislators; and what the outcome was. He presents the arguments used by both *pros* and *cons*, showing which were truly relevant and which were confused, contradictory, or specious. He names names, quotes sources verbatim, and cites circumstances, places, and dates. This is the documented record; its lessons and their application elsewhere are obvious.

Regional Institute on Teaching the Bright and Gifted, 1960. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Southern University. 1960. 123 pp. A report on the Regional Institute on Teaching the Bright and Gifted sponsored by the Southern Education Foundation in Atlanta, Georgia. Presents the 9 papers presented to the institute: The Academically Talented: Definition and Characteristics; Planning Programs for the Academically Talented Student; Acceleration; Ability Grouping; Enrichment—A Program for the Gifted; Enrichment in Mathematics; Utilizing Community Resources; The Characteristics of Teachers Needed; and Working with Parents.

The Institute was designed to provide four basic types of activities for the participants: (1) a series of presentations, by well-qualified individuals, of factual information and warranted judgments on selected topics dealing with teaching academically talented students; (2) professional laboratory experiences (observation, participation, and teaching) in high-school classes of English, science, and mathematics being offered in the Special Program for Academically Talented Students; (3) seminar sessions devoted to reporting, evaluating, and planning in which the experiential content in other Institute activities could be verbalized and organized for use; and (4) academic con-

tent seminars in which participating teachers could secure assistance at need points in the subjects they teach or with which they are concerned.

RUSSELL, BERTRAND. Our Knowledge of the External World. New York 22: New American Library, 501 Madison Avenue, 1960, 192 pp. 50¢. A series of lectures by the author on man and his position in the universe, as clarified by the light of science.

STAUTZ, C. H. Planning Your School Building Dollar. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company-Book Division, 56 and Chestnut Street. 1960. 127 pp. \$2.75. With more and more schools needed every year all over the country, and with the tax load for these schools becoming heavier and heavier, there has been a crying need for a simple, readable explanation of how school boards, principals, and school superintendents can work with architects to predetermine the exact cost of any proposed school plant. Methods of design and increasing construction costs today make it an absolute necessity for the achitect not to exceed allocated funds. To do this he must be the master of the construction contract instead of being-along with the school board in many cases -at the mercy of the contractor. Here is a suggested plan of action by which any school board can build school buildings within its bond issue-no guess work, no mystery, no unfortunate "cost" surprises at the conclusion of the work.

STEINBERG, S. H., editor. The Statesman's Year-Book 1960-61. New York 10: St. Martins Press, 175 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 1,703 pp. \$9.50. This yearbook, now in its ninety-seventh annual edition, is the most authoritative, up-to-date work of reference available. It contains in one volume not only all the essential facts scattered throughout the many different international yearbooks, but also a wealth of additional data from reliable private sources. It is entirely unbiased in its presentation of matters of current topical interest, and being an independent publication, it is not hampered by any restrictions that may apply to official statistical publications.

SUTTLES, R. H., editor. Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1960. 361 pp. \$7.50. Every title has been rechecked for availability, nature, and content of listing; distribution conditions; and educational value. This edition lists 1,298 items, of which 547, or 42.1%, are new. All new titles are starred. Many titles have been deleted from the previous edition. Materials are available from 466 sources, of which 105 are new in this edition.

Units have been included in the Guide, as a Teacher's Manual, for convenient reference. This Guide is a complete, up-to-date, annotated schedule of selected free maps, bulletins, pamphlets, exhibits, charts, and books. It brings the compiled information on this vast array of worth-while free educational

materials for immediate use, within the covers of a single book.

WATSON, R. I. Psychology of the Child. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 440 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 672 pp. \$6.95. This book approaches child psychology not as a separate or isolated subdivision but as an integral part of the subject matter encompassed by general psychology. It includes material from educational, clinical, social, and general psychology, and critically examines the contributions of each of these to the field of child psychology. Integrating learning theory with psychoanalysis and discussing personality in relation to every aspect of child development, the author presents the material in developmental sequence from infancy through early childhood to later childhood. The book discusses the school-age child in an educaD.

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tional setting, provides principles of normal child behavior, and relates normal development to disturbed development.

WHITE, R. K., and R. O. LIPPITT. Autocracy and Democracy. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street. 1960. 340 pp. \$6. In collaboration with the late Kurt Lewin, the authors conducted these experiments into the dynamics of democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire social situations on small children. Observations and systematic controlled variations of conditioning have been applied to the democratic process in miniature, but realistic, laboratory situations.

The results of these experiments, together with findings from case studies of individual children, provide a basis for understanding reactions in larger groups, such as the family or classroom, and can even be applied to groups on the national and international scale.

In this volume the authors review and extend the insights that emerged from their earlier observations; some aspects of the data are here reported for the first time.

The ideas explored, important when the research was begun some twenty years ago, are even more urgent today. For, as the authors point out, the totalitarian dictatorship that challenged Western democracies did not end with Hitler's defeat but has reappeared in the form of international communism.

Books for Teacher-Pupil Use

ADRIAN, MARY. The Rare Stamp Mystery. New York 22: Hastings House, Publisher, Inc., 151 East 50th Street. 1960. 125 pp. \$2.75. There was plenty of excitement at the Red Barn that day. The Red Barn was a restaurant on the Macdonald farm run by Skeet Macdonald's parents. News had come that a rare stamp had been stolen from the home of a nearby collector. Skeet and his friends thought that this loss might tie in with a theft a short time ago at the Macdonald farm. So the three children start out to solve the case.

ARCHIBALD, JOSEPH. Jet Flier. New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1960. 182 pp. \$2.95. A World War II bombing mission had left deep scars on Harry Burnell's mind. Now in a crippled jet airliner over Idlewild, he was to have a chance to cancel a debt. While a thrill-hungry crowd waited on the ground below, the years fell away from Burnell and he flew once more the long arduous course that had its beginning in a rattletrap sky-writing plane and ended on the flight deck of a mighty jet.

ASHBAUGH, B. L., and MURIEL BEUSCHLEIN. Things To Do in Science and Conservation. Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1927 North Jackson Street. 1960. 175 pp. \$2.50. The demonstrations and projects outlined in this book involve equipment and techniques found most often in the domain of the science curriculum. Each chapter presents a basic resource which in turn is considered via several different approaches. Each approach includes: first, a statement of fact or a concept; second, a practical method for demonstrating the concept, where applicable; third, projects which can be assigned individuals singly or in groups; and, last, several questions (in italics) which encourage the student to broaden his awareness of the concept and its possible applications to the over-all conservation problem.

The material is not aimed at any specific age or educational group. Highly sophisticated and elementary facts are side-by-side; the teacher will choose his

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or her own level. Each chapter ends with a list of conservation interrelationships which should help to tie a given resource to others, and with a bibliography specifically applicable to each resource.

BALL, JOHN, IR. Spacemaster 1. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce. Inc., 124 East 30th Street. 1960. 148 pp. \$3. There was just about one chance in a million that young Dick Simmons could win a place in the Spacemaster Project, but it was the chance he wanted to take more than he had ever wanted anything in his life. It changed his whole life, made a new person of him. How he studied, trained, and dedicated himself to the greatest of the American projects for adventuring into space is the story of Spacemaster.

BAUMANN, HANS. The World of the Pharaohs. New York 14: Pantheon Books, Inc., 333 Sixth Avenue. 1960. 256 pp. \$4. For thousands of years the secrets of the world of the Pharaohs lay sealed deep within the royal tombs and pyramids that rim the desert of Egypt. Time and again these graves were ransacked by robbers, but there still remained clues for modern scholars and excavators to discover. Many of the treasures brought to light within the last century were the result of years of careful planning, patience, and hard work, vet some of the finds were come upon by mere chance. No wonder then that thirteen-year-old Megdi, who had lived all his life within the shadow of the pyramids, should one day decide to try his own luck.

His first attempt proved to be not only disappointing but dangerous. He was prowling about amid the rubble left by robbers in a dark tunnel when old Gurgar came along and led him away, warning him about cave-ins. Yet Megdi did find a treasure in Gurgar, an expert on the history of the Land of the Nile,

who had had a lifelong association with archaeologists.

BENDICK, JEANNE. Electronics for Young People. New York 36: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1960. \$3.50. The many changes in the vast field of electronics have made it necessary to revise the earlier versions of this book. New vocabulary, machines, and concepts have developed so rapidly that keeping up is a daily challenge. In this new edition, the author gives a clear and up-to-date account of the latest techniques and equipment, while retaining the material on electronic principles that has made this book a leader in the field.

In addition, the author gives a view of the electronic future-atomic clocks accurate within three seconds, electronic concerts, dishwashers that put dishes away, sky platforms for weather observation, and much more. New illustrations by the author complete the revision and help show what these forces are and

what we may expect of them in the future.

BIRKELAND, TORGER. Echoes of Puget Sound. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Lts. 1960. 251 pp. \$6. In the early days of the twentieth century the Mosquito Fleet played a colorful and important part in the life and economic development of the Puget Sound country. The fleet was composed of a myriad of steamboats of all sizes-each with a personality of its own. Many of these vessels have become legendary. Scurrying around the Sound in every sort of weather, the only links between many towns and settlements, these craft formed the largest and most picturesque fleet of its kind the world has known. They wrote an important chapter in Pacific Northwest history. This is their story, told by one who helped to bring the Mosquito Fleet to its golden age and then watched it wane.

BLAINE, JOHN. Rick Brant's Science Projects. New York 10: Grosset and Dunlap, Inc., 1107 Broadway, 1960, 247 pp. \$1.95. As in the Rick T

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Brandt stories, the projects described here involve both science and adventure. In addition to strictly scientific demonstrations, there are chapters on archery, skin-diving, codes, tricks and games, and other projects that have proved popular with boys.

None of the projects in this book requires either expert help or special equipment. Cost of materials has been kept low. Any boy with a paper route or some other source of small income could do them all. Boys with no income at all can do most of them. Every project is fully illustrated with step-by-step pictures and diagrams. To insure the accuracy and usefulness of the pictures, the author actually made the things described and the artist prepared his pictures from the devices, themselves.

BORDWELL, CONSTANCE, editor. The Volunteer Corps of Northwest Discovery. Portland 2, Oregon: Beaver Books, 3650 S.E. Knight. 1960. 119 pp. Soldiering with Lewis and Clark. Well-chosen selections from the original journals of Lewis and Clark, supplemented with the editor's narrative, tell the story of the Lewis and Clark expedition as a military mission of exploration.

BRYANT, BERNICE. Miss Behavior. New York 22: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 717 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 192 pp. \$2.95. Do you wonder how you can make the most out of these precious years of youth when you are forming the habits and attitudes that will mark your personality the rest of your life? Here, then, are suggestions given in the most sympathetic, understanding way for starting you off right on the road to complete success as a woman.

CARBONNIER, JEANNE. Congo Explorer. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 152 pp. \$3. This first biography in English of Pierre Savorgnan de Brazza is an adventure story, especially timely now as we need to understand the background of European colonialism in Africa.

CAVANNA, BETTY. Arne of Norway. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1960. 81 pp. \$3.50. Arne Hansen is a real Norwegian boy who lives in Hammerfest, the most northerly city in the world, three-hundred miles above the Arctic Circle, and icebound and isolated during much of the winter. Arne is accustomed to the rugged scenery which tourists come by boat to photograph; sheer cliffs rising almost straight out of the ocean for a thousand feet or more, craggy mountain ranges, and long fjords reaching between them. He is accustomed also to the summer of continuous daylight with its midnight sun, and to the long, dark winter night. In this book, the author takes the reader on a visit to Arne in Hammerfest, and from there on a fishing trip to the Svalbard islands, far to the north, and to Bergen, along the coast to the south.

CHAMBERS, R. W., and A. S. PAYNE. From Cell to Test Tube. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 216 pp. \$3.50. Biochemistry affects the everyday lives of all of us. This book is an introduction to this comparatively new and exciting science for those who wish to know more about it. The long trail of research which precedes a great discovery is told through the story of selected experiments.

CHAPPELL, WARREN. They Say Stories. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1960. 79 pp. \$3. Here are original stories full of humor and great perception, enriched with those elusive, but everlasting, qualities that have made folk tales and proverbs part of our heritage.

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CROSS, WILBUR. Ghost Ship of the Pole. New York 16: William Sloane Associates, Inc., 425 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 318 pp. \$5. On the morning of May 25, 1928, the dirigible Italia crashed onto an ice pack in the frozen emptiness of the Arctic Ocean. The beginning of an epic struggle for survival, this disaster initiated one of the greatest series of Arctic searches in the annals of polar expeditions, and became the death knell for many brave men—crew and rescuers alike.

But the story of the *Italia*, her captain, Umberto Nobile, and her crew, is far more than an account of heroic survival and rescue, for it brings sharply into focus the serious and tragic flaws of a decade too often remembered only as the happy, carefree "roaring twenties." Amidst the political machinations, jealousies, and upheavals of that time, Nobile dared to plan and execute an

expedition by dirigible to the North Pole.

CUMMING, R. W., and R. E. LEE. Contemporary Perennials. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 363 pp. \$6.95. This book, the work of a leading commercial grower of perennial plants and of a distinguished professor of floriculture, will start beginning gardeners on the right path and will inspire old-timers to bring their gardens up to date. With this text as a guide, it should be possible for any home gardener to plant a flower garden that will be a thing of perennial beauty.

The alphabetical list of desirable perennials—about 140 genera and more than 500 species—is of value to all gardeners—beginning, home, professional, or commercial. More than one hundred genera have been illustrated by the careful, accurate hand of artist-gardener Allianora Rosse. Each plant's description is followed by practical information about its garden uses, cultural preferences, and propagation methods. Special effort has been made to include only those perennial species, cultivars, selections, and hybrids which, after thorough trial,

have proved to be truly the cream of the crop.

DANIELS, JONATHAN. Robert E. Lee. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street. 1960. 184 pp. \$1.68. Sitting astride his fine gray horse Traveller on the heights above Fredericksburg, Virginia, General Robert E. Lee watched the brave, blue-clad soldiers of General Ambrose Burnside charge out of the morning mists and up the slope into the withering fire of the firm Confederate lines. "It is well that war is so terrible," said Lee to one of his officers; "otherwise we should grow too fond of it."

The great Southern Civil War commander had no desire to see men needlessly slaughtered. But he was so skillful at the tragic game of war that he delighted in out-maneuvering—and then out-fighting if he could—the numerically superior Union forces. His major strategy was to outwit his enemies by swift strategic maneuvers, as often as possible drawing Union troops away from his endangered capital of Richmond, Virginia, by wide flanking movements which threatened

the Union capital of Washington, D. C.

DUMAS, ALEXANDRE. Adventures in Switzerland. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company—Book Division, Chestnut at 56th Street. 1960. 246 pp. \$3.50. Dumas uses his gift of masterful description and humorous anecdote to describe his experiences. Whether fishing in an icy mountain stream, visiting the famous morgue of the St. Bernard, or getting a neurotic donkey across a river, he found inspiration for a facile pen.

HAHN, W. F., and J. C. NEFF, editors. American Strategy for the Nuclear Age. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc. 1960. 479 pp. \$1.45 (paperbound). What is the changed global environment in

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which we find ourselves today? What is the nature of our enemy-his strengths, weaknesses, strategy, and tactics? What is the scope of the military challenges confronting us? What are the economic policies by which we can meet the challenges? Finally, what are some of the specific courses of action which should be taken if we are to win the struggle?

This book attempts to answer these and other questions. It is an outgrowth of the first National Strategy Seminar for Reserve Officers, held at the National War College, Washington, D. C., in July 1959. It contains edited versions of many of the addresses presented there as well as the writings of other authorities which have appeared in various magazines, journals, and books during the past few years. The majority of the contributions are presented in book form for the first time. The editors do not presume to consider this volume of readings definitive. Admittedly there are many other writings which could have been included. But within the space available, the editors have tried to present a comprehensive account of as many aspects of the Free World's struggle against communism as possible.

HAYS, W. P. Samuel Morse and the Telegraph. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1960. 72 pp. \$1.95. Samuel Morse was forty-one years old and a famous portrait painter when an important question burst into his mind: If the presence of electricity could be made visible in any part of a circuit, why could not messages be transmitted instantaneously by electricity? Thus the idea for the telegraph was born. "Writing at a distance" had long been a private dream of Samuel Morse's. Forced to spend long periods of time away from his family, his letters took weeks, sometimes months

to reach his loved ones-and theirs to reach him.

After years of struggle and disappointment, Morse's dream came true. On May 24th, 1844, the first official telegraph message-What Hath God Wrought! -was flashed from Washington to Baltimore. The success of Morse's first crude instrument was to open up a whole new era of communication, and led to our

amazing electronic age of telephone, radio, and television.

HOKE, HELEN. Alaska, Alaska, Alaska. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1960. 256 pp. \$2.95. Here are the tenderfeet of the Gold Rush era who stamped into Alaska for gold and found claim-jumpers and bullets as well as avalanches and swift rapids-in sharp contrast to today's modern big-business miners. In this land of summer daylight and winter darkness, there are still places no human foot has ever walked, still challenges for men of adventure.

HYDE, WAYNE. What Does a Parachutist Do? New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue. 1960. 64 pp. \$2.50. Here is a detailed account of the thrills and dangers encountered by parachutists-the vigorous training, that exciting first descent, valuable work done with the aid of parachutes. Written by a former paratrooper, this new title in the "What

Do They Do?" series has dramatic photographs on every page.

JEANS, SIR JAMES. The Universe Around Us. New York 22: Cambridge University Press, 32 East 57th Street. 1960. 307 pp. \$1.95 (paperbound). The present book contains a brief account, written in simple language, of the methods and results of modern astronomical research, both observational and theoretical. Special attention has been given to problems of cosmogony and evolution, and to the general structure of the universe. The author's ideal has been that of making the entire book intelligible to readers with no special scientific knowledge.

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JOHANSEN, D. O. The Sternwheeler Comes West. Portland 2, Oregon: Beaver Books, 3650 S.E. Knight. 1960. 92 pp. A companion volume to The Stagecoach Comes West, this takes up another phase of transportation in the West. It similarly emphasizes relevant details such as the building of the boats, the development of the stern wheel to provide more power for rapid western waters, the routes, the traffic carried, and high adventure on dangerous rivers.

JOHNSON, E. H. The Mysterious Trunk. New York 18: Ives Washburn, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1960. 153 pp. \$2.95. When Katie, Jim, and Martha Hunt learned that their mother had inherited an old whaling trunk from her aunt, they were tremendously excited and curious about its contents. According to the letter announcing the bequest, the owner of the trunk had felt it possessed a "mysterious power," which she hoped would work for the Hunts as it had for her. Certainly the Hunts needed all the help they could get as they struggled to keep their sheep farm going after Mr. Hunt's death.

JOHNSON, W. W. The Birth of Texas. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street. 1960. 183 pp. \$1.68. Inside the besieged Alamo, fewer than 200 Frontiersmen were determined to defend their fortress to the death. Outside, in an ever tightening circle, thirty to forty times that number of well-armed Mexicans were moving in for the kill. The Texas patriots flew a flag of red, white, and green. The Mexicans flaunted a blood-red banner which

meant no quarter would be given.

For thirteen never-to-be-forgotten days in the late winter of 1836, Colonel William B. Travis, Davy Crockett, and other sleepless defenders stood off Santa Ana's Army. When at last the Mexicans came tumbling over the walls, the men within fought hand to hand. Not one of the defenders was spared.

JONES, TREVOR. Tea. New York 19: Taplinger Publishing Company, 119 West 57th Street. 1958. 90 pp. \$2.50. This book tells how tea comes from the plantation to the shops and describes the many processes through which it passes. There is also a detailed description of the life and work of the people

in this important industry.

KELLAND, C. B. The Monitor Affair. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue. 1960. 218 pp. \$3.50. The Confederates immediately recognized the Monitor as a devastating threat to their own Merrimac. Beautiful Carlotta Ouverard, who operated a Rebel spy ring from her fashionable New York drawing room, was determined to win Ericsson's services for the Southern cause. Her first weapon was the budding romance between her niece Yvonne and Eric Nelson. When Madame Ouverard's plan to reach the stormy Swedish genius failed, her conspirators were driven to sabotage and murder. And Nelson was forced into a life-and-death duel with some of the South's most ruthless agents.

KENDALL, LACE. Houdini, Master of Escape. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Company, 225 South 15th Street. 1960. 187 pp. \$2.95. Here, from the age of Horatio Alger and the fortune builders, is the fabulous, true story of a poor boy of tremendous ambition who developed his physical and moral powers to an almost supernatural degree, to become one of the greatest magicians of all time. More wild and daring than space fiction were the deeds of Harry

Houdini; more daring and tender than a novel was his love story.

KRUGER, RAYNE. Good-Bye Dolly Gray. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippin-cott Company, East Washington Square. 1960. 507 pp. \$8.50. The Boer War was fought with outstanding heroism and often with glaring incompetence on both sides, and prefigured, in its use of modern weapons such as the machine

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gun and of new techniques, a much more costly war that was to grip all of Europe only a dozen years later. In this account, the author takes the reader behind the scenes in Downing Street and the House of Commons, as well as into the camps of the Boer leaders on the African veld. He recreates the disasters at Magersfontein and Spion Kop, the relief of Makeking, the march to Pretoria, the astonishing guerilla campaign waged by the Boers late in the war, and draws memorable portraits of the war's leading personalities—Chamberlain, Kruger, Rhodes, Roberts, Kitchener, Baden-Powell, and the heroic Boer generals De la Rey and De Wet.

LEE, D. E.; T. S. DICKINSON; and W. A. BROWER. Secretarial Practice for Colleges. New York 36: Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1960. 255 pp. \$3.75. This book covers the whole area of secretarial development. This includes refresher training in typewriting and shorthand skills; personality improvement and human relations; and full coverage of such basic related knowledge as filing systems, telephone technique, office machines operation, office routine, reception duties, mailing systems and procedures, shipping procedures, preparing financial records, and job finding.

The presentation is divided into two major parts. The first half of the book deals with stenographic duties and the second half with secretarial responsibilities. Between the sections a promotion test is given. This test is another subtle way of accenting the "quality" and "depth" differences between stenographers and secretaries. The results of the test should give the student reason to take stock of her qualifications for advancing to the position of "secretary" while there is still time to fill in the gaps.

LESLIE, L. A.; C. E. ZOUBEK; and JAMES DEESE. Gregg Notehand. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1960. 326 pp. \$4.48. This book was written to meet a student need that educators have long recognized—instruction in making intelligent, meaningful notes from listening. Psychologists have long known that the process of making notes contributes greatly to learning and remembering. In addition to providing instruction in notemaking processes and procedures, this book equips the notemaker with a brief, easy-to-learn writing method—Gregg Notehand—with which to make notes much more rapidly and easily than he could with longhand.

It is organized in two parts. Part I: Fundamentals of Gregg Notehand and Notemaking—Theory and Practice—presents all the theory of Gregg notehand as well as the basic fundamentals of good notemaking. It contains 42 units (or lessons), of which 30 are devoted to presentation of the theory of Gregg notehand; six, to review of Gregg notehand; and six, to presentation of notemaking fundamentals. The units in Part I follow this pattern: one unit on the fundamentals of notemaking; five units on Gregg notehand theory; and one unit on review of Gregg notehand. This pattern is repeated six times in the 42 units of Part I. Part II: Applications of Gregg notehand and notemaking—Extended Practice—is designed to extend and refine the notemaker's ability to use Gregg notehand and to make good notes. It contains 28 units, 24 of which are devoted to Gregg notehand and four to notemaking.

The key to the reading and writing exercises and illustrations of notemaking techniques appears in type in the back of the book, thereby enabling the Gregg notehand student to make the most rapid progress, especially in the early stages. The student should be urged to follow the suggestions given to Unit 2 for the use of this key. The practice material in the reading and writing exercises con-

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sists largely of short articles that are inspirational, informational, or entertaining. The material is on an adult level and will appeal equally to masculine or feminine interests. In the early units, some of the words in the reading and writing exercises are given in longhand. This makes it possible to provide meaningful sentences and paragraphs for practice before the student has completed the theory of Gregg notehand. A 40-page *Teachers Guide* accompanies the book.

LUND, GLIDA. The Art of Growing Up. London: The Educational Supply Association, Ltd. 1960. 96 pp. \$2.50. The author felt that this was a book which must be written because, she says, "I wanted to tell young girls all those things which, if someone had told me, when I was sixteen or so, would have saved me so much unhappiness and embarrassment." The book has three sections—personal appearance, good manners, and good taste.

MARRIOTT, ALICE. The First Comers. New York 18: Longmans, Green, 119 West 40th Street. 1960. 256 pp. \$4.50. This book describes the lives of the first American Indians, from the Arctic Circle to the Mexican border, and tells how groups in different parts of the country lived and worked. A separate section, for those who make a practical hobby of archaeology, describes archaeological field methods used in various regions and the special problems and techniques to be used in desert, swamps, and lakes. Also included are information and suggestions on the use of museums and on setting up small museums or single case displays. The book contains both bibliography and index, and is beautifully illustrated by Harvey Weiss.

MARTIN, FREDERICKA. Sea Bears: The Story of the Fur Seal. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Book Division and Authors, Chestnut at 56th Street. 1960. 201 pp. \$3.50. The author describes the ruthless hunting of the fur seal in the Aleutians and Pribilofs, first by Russian hunters and then Americans. Japanese and Canadian hunters were also helping bring the once vast seal herds to extinction. After the Alaska Purchase, the United States created monopoly stock companies in an effort to eliminate unbridled competition and curb the slaughter. Treaties were signed between Great Britain, Russia, Japan, and the United States. Ultimately, it was the arousing of public opinion by certain dedicated Americans—chief among them Henry Wood Elliott—which closed the sordid chapter in our territorial history.

MAUROIS, ANDRE. Lafayette in America. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street. 1960. 184 pp. \$1.68. This is the true story of one of the best friends our country ever had. Young, wealthy, and high in the French aristocracy, the Marquis de Lafayette abandoned his life of ease in France to cross the Atlantic and join George Washington's struggling little army. He was wounded at the Brandywine, shared the bitter winter at Valley Forge, and our final victory over the British at Yorktown. America will never cease to be grateful.

MEADER, S. W. Buffalo and Beaver. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 750 Third Avenue. 1960. 189 pp. \$2.95. Young Jeff Barlow, who loved to draw and paint, was sixteen when he left his uncle's Illinois farm and went with his father to spend the winter in the Rocky Mountain wilderness. Few white men in 1827 had ever been in this remote territory, but, while game was abundant and the streams swarmed with beaver, life was far from easy. The deep snows and bitter cold lasted for months in the high valley where they camped. Grizzly bears, cougars, and timber wolves menaced the indis-

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pensable horses. And in the spring on their way to the trappers' rendezvous with their furs, they were forced to fight hostile Indians.

MEDARIS, J. B., and ARTHUR GORDON. Countdown for Decision. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1960. 315 pp. \$5. For decades, the American people had taken as a matter of fact and natural pride the technological supremacy of the United States over the rest of the world. Then the Russians sent their Sputnik I into orbit around the earth and followed it in rapid succession with other satellites and space probes far larger than anything the United States could put into space. Since then there has been nothing but controversy and disagreement as both sides have claimed superiority in the space race.

The basic purpose of this book, by the man who was for five years (1955-1960) the Army's top missile commander, is to eliminate the confusion that now exists in the public mind where our space and missile program is concerned. Certain changes in our present setup are essential for our survival, General Medaris says, and these can only be brought about by a public opinion that is better motivated and better informed than it has been in the past.

MOLLOY, ANNE. Three-Part Island. New York 22: Hastings House, Publisher, Inc., 151 East 50th Street. 1960. 185 pp. \$2.95. On an island off the Maine coast was a deserted Coast Guard station. Spruce trees had grown up almost to its door and the tall observation post looked out over nothing but neglected woods, piles of slash left long ago by lumbermen, and miles of open water. The three young Kingsleys were eager to see the family's island, which was bought sight unseen, and the Coast Guard station that was to be their home for the summer. Even so, they were secretly worried how they would pass the time in this deserted (so they thought) and unwelcoming place.

MONTGOMERY, JOHN. Foxy. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1960. 128 pp. \$2.95. Foxy came into David's life at a moment when it seemed he hadn't a friend in the world. His adopted parents were kind, but how could they understand what a small town boy felt when faced with living on a chicken farm? This is a story for all ages, especially for the young in heart. There are moments of tense and poignant excitement as well as great charm. And there runs through the book, like a golden thread, a small boy's faith in a Creator who cares for all life.

MONTGOMERY, RUTHERFORD. Mission Intruder. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 124 East 30th Street. 1960. 137 pp. \$3. Jet Pilot Kent Barstow and his pal, Spud Murphy, are handed a rough, tough assignment by the chief of Air Force Special Intelligence. This new mission is one of the nerviest jobs they have ever faced together. The mission—get the Intruder, a high-flying supersonic enemy plane that is pushing into America's Alaskan domain.

MOZLEY, CHARLES. Tales of Ancient Egypt. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1960. 69 pp. \$1.95. This collection has seven of the best tales of this ancient country: the magic crocodile who took a fearsome revenge upon an enemy; a lost jewel and its recovery; of a great wizard of the Nile; and, as stories of the gods are so much a part of this country's folklore, here read how Isis made the Sun-god reveal to her his most secret and powerful name—and what happened then.

NERTON, ERIC. The Arts of Man. Greenwich, Connecticut: New York Graphic Society, 95 East Putnam Avenue. 1960. 319 pp. \$5.95. The conventional approach to great art is too often limited to painting and sculpture.

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In this book, a distinguished British critic (currently Slade Professor of Fine Art at Oxford) makes a choice of masterpieces from every medium, the most diverse cultures, and every period since the prehistoric cave painters. Making use of our ever-broadening concept of what constitutes art, he includes mosaics, tapestry, stained glass, ceramics, coins, enamels glass, primitive masks, drawings, etchings, book illustration and illuminations, as well as painting and sculpture. Along with familiar works that can stand any amount of re-examination, he has chosen many examples that have rarely or never been reproduced.

NORTH, STERLING. Captured by the Mohawks. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street. 1960. 183 pp. \$1.68. There in the tall grass lay the bodies of his two hunting companions—scalped and murdered by the Mohawks. Now sixteen-year-old Pierre Radisson realized that he too might be facing a similar fate. Pierre rammed a heavy ball into his muzzle loader, and as Mohawk bullets began to whistle around him, he returned the fire. In another moment the savages were swarming over him, howling like wolves in

their pleasure. He had become a captive of the Mohawks.

NOURSE, A. E. Star Surgeon. New York 18: David McKay Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1960. 182 pp. \$2.95. When Dal Timgar, of all in his medical class, was denied assignment to a general practice patrol ship going out from Hospital Earth to serve the medical needs of the Galactic Contederation, it seemed to him that his eight years of study in the great medical center of the galaxy had ended in failure. He had worked hard and stood at the head of his class, but Dal was different from his medical colleagues in one important way. Born on a planet of a distant star, he was the first son of an alien race to attempt to become a qualified physician of Hospital Earth.

O'MEARA, WALTER. The First Northwest Passage. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street. 1960. 183 pp. \$1.68. When Alexander Mackenzie, the fairhaired, blue-eyed lad of sixteen, arrived in Canada, he had very little money in his pocket. But he did have good looks, a strong body, and a lightning-quick mind. Within a very few years, he was a prosperous fur trader with headquarters on remote Lake Athabasca. And it was from this vantage point that he made two great exploring expeditions, one down the river (that now bears his name) to the Arctic Ocean, and the other up the Peace River to the Rocky Mountains, over the Great Divide, and down other streams to the Pacific—having discovered the first canoe route to the Western Sea.

PACKARD, VANCE. The Waste Makers. New York 18: David McKay Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1960. 352 pp. \$4.50. The author claims that consumption for consumption's sake—with no real relevance to the needs and desires of the citizens—is rapidly being exalted into a virtue in its own right—one transcending those values that have been revered in the Western world through the ages. This is coming about, says the author, through the capacity of America's productive system to produce more goods than we need, resulting in the increasingly frantic effort of industry—its promoters, marketers, and merchandisers—to persuade the buyer to waste more and more.

Though he has no quarrel with legitimate technological advancement, he seriously questions the morality and economic validity of a system that, in order to exist, depends upon artificially shortening the useful life of products. In his analysis and airing of this hush-hush phase of industrial design and marketing, he gets to the heart of this new "philosophy of waste," tells who the wastemakers are, how they operate, what they do to us. In his new book, we see the impact of waste-making on America's dwindling natural resources, its effect

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upon the consumer's pocketbook and his mode of living, upon America's survival as an honest supplier in the export market—above all, its implications in the average American citizen's whole way of life.

PARKER, ELIZABETH. The Seven Ages of Woman. Baltimore 18: The Johns Hopkins Press. 1960. 621 pp. \$6.50. The mystery of the essential nature of femininity has always intrigued mankind, and answers have been sought in all phases of woman's physical and psychological makeup. This is truer today than ever before, but with this difference—now woman herself is seeking the answers. This book seeks to establish a foundation of fact for the understanding of the normal experiences common to the great majority of women. It traces woman's development—physical, psychological, and spiritual—through the seven stages of her life.

PEPE, P. S. Personal Typing in 24 Hours, 3rd edition. New York 36: Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1960. 64 pp. This is a course in personal typing to be learned in 24 one-hour lessons. The learner begins immediately to type sentences. He spends a minimum of time on short, specific instructions. The book is divided into 3 sections:

1. Typing in 24 Hours. First, there is the course, in 24 one-hour lessons. Each hour's work is complete on one page, with review, lesson proper, par requirement, and short, easy instructions. The learner types 35 words in one minute, perfectly, by Hour 24; and she sets up and types a letter in five minutes.

Speed Typing. The second section contains a scientific plan and practice paragraphs for building speed and accuracy to 50 words in one minute.

3. Production Practice. The third section contains exact instructions and 50 practice jobs on many important uses of typing skill: letters, manuscripts, reports, centering, tabulation, and so on.

PHILLIPS, C. E. L. The Greatest Raid of All. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Company, 34 Beacon Street. 1960. 288 pp. \$4,95. In March 1942 a fleet of wooden motor launches and an ancient destroyer carrying 611 men, most of them commandos, slipped out of Falmouth harbor into the English Channel. They were bound for the Loire estuary, a thin track of water between two coasts bristling with German guns. They feigned the formation of a minelaying operation. Even before they reached their destination, they encountered two German patrol boats, a French fishing fleet, and a German submarine. This was the beginning of the greatest raid of all, one of the most daring enterprises of World War II.

The commando's job was to blow up the largest dry dock in the world—the Normandie Dock in St. Nazaire harbor. It was vitally important because it was the only dock which could accommodate the *Tirpitz*, the biggest battleship in the German fleet and the greatest single threat to Allied shipping since the sinking of the *Bismarck*. The plan was to ram the old destroyer, filled with delayed-action explosives, into the dock gates and then to disembark the commandos to blow up the dock machinery.

This story is only partly an account of the actual attack. It is also the remarkable tale of the painstaking preparation necessary for such an operation. Complete information about the objectives was compiled from every conceivable source. The men were trained to carry out in the dark and under enemy fire the destruction of dock machinery they had never seen. Each learned to perform all the most essential parts of the operation in case of casualties. Secrecy was maintained in all the different branches of the service which

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took part in the action, and a bluff was planned so that the fleet could approach the enemy's shore without being blown out of the water by his powerful coastal batteries.

This book is also the story of the men who fought at St. Nazaire and of the magnificent spirit which induced them to join a raid from which they knew

the chances of escape were slim.

The author has done a remarkable job of reconstructing a brilliant but little-known wartime action. He has been able to trace every individual unit and has found out what happened to its men during and after the raid. He has consulted the War Diaries and the files of Combined Operations, and has received the assistance of Admiral of the Fleet Earl Mountbatten and of many of the leaders in the expedition.

POOLE, LYNN and GRAY. Scientists Who Changed the World. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue. 1960. 164 pp. \$3. From the fifth century B.C., to modern times, there have emerged original thinkers in the realm of science whose ideas were so revolutionary that they have profoundly changed the outlook of mankind upon the world. Here is an inspiring gallery of seventeen such pioneers who have opened up new frontiers in their varied fields of science.

REYNOLDS, QUENTIN. Known But to God. New York 36: The John Day Company, Inc., 62 West 45th Street. 1960. 255 pp. \$3.95. Between the white marble colonnades the nation colors moved in the heavy air. An Army chorus softly chanted Walt Whitman's "Dirge for Two Veterans." President Eisenhower spoke just twenty-six words: "On behalf of a grateful people, I now present Medals of Honor to these two Unknowns who gave their lives for the United States of America." In Latin, English, and Hebrew three military chaplains intoned the burial rites: "... from sea and shore, from camp and field, we bring home our beloved dead." From the Lee Mansion the heavy roll of cannon began to toll a twenty-one gun salute that echoed across the Potomac River. A bugle sounded the poignant notes of "Taps," the warrior's farewell. On this clear and sweltering Memorial Day in 1958, in a hushed, emotion-filled ceremony, two Americans who had died on the battlegrounds of World War II and Korea were home at last to join the Unknown Soldier of the First World War at Arlington National Cemetery.

SAYLES, TED, and MARY STEVENS. Throw Stone. Chicago 4: The Reilly and Lee Company, 14 East Jackson Blvd. 1960. 142 pp. \$3.75. With the Grandfather's words, Throw Stone and his family begin to prepare for one of the most amazing journeys ever taken—a journey made 25,000 years ago. Because of the increasingly bitter cold of the Ice Age, the animals that were the food of these Arctic dwellers were moving south, and the people faced the choice of either following them into the wild uncharted land we now call America or starving! They take up the challenge of the journey, and the "Land Where the Sun Lives" is finally reached, but not until many days and many adventures are behind them.

Science, the Endless Frontier. Washington 25, D. C.: National Science Foundation, Office of the Director. 1960. 246 pp. This new edition is a reprint of a report to the President of the U.S. on a program for postwar scientific research. It is being brought out as part of the tenth anniversary observance of the National Science Foundation.

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SCOTT, T. T. Mark of a Champion. New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1960. 214 pp. \$3.50. Larry Chance has been carrying a man's load this long while. The setter puppy, showing all the instincts of a champion bird dog, fits right into this plan somehow, someday, to bring back the home place. The boy's right to make his own decisions is challenged by those who want what he has left. He is not to take the dog! But Larry, worried and torn as he is by conflicting loyalties, feels he must hold on, that what once was, may be again. The performance of the setter continues to be amazing. The boy hides the pup on a swamp island, in order to gain time.

SETON, ANYA. Washington Irving. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street. 1960. 184 pp. \$1.68. "When the pirates swarmed aboard the Matilda their countenances displayed the strongest lines of villainy and rapacity. They carried rusty cutlasses in their hands, and pistols and stilettos were stuck in their belts and waistbands." Such is the description Washington Irving gives of his capture by Mediterranean pirates on his first trip to Europe in 1804. Fortunately his life was spared. Otherwise America would have been deprived of a great writer and diplomat—the biographer of Columbus and Washington, and the author of such beloved tales as Rip Van Winkle and The Legend of Sleepy Hollow.

SHERIDAN, J. D. Ireland. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1960. 71 pp. \$3. Ireland may be the Emerald Isle, but, as the 24 color photographs in this book show, she is also one of the most vividly polychrome of countries. The brilliant red of the fuchsia hedges, the more than Mediterranean blue of the sea off Donegal, the arresting whitewash of the cottages, the gay yellow of the whin blossom—these are all as characteristic of Ireland as the traditional green of her grass. So various is the color of Ireland that the black and white of ordinary photography can convey only a partial impression of the reality. Kenneth Scowen, the famous landscape photographer, has taken specially the pictures for this book, and he has concentrated on just those subjects which Irishmen and visitors alike will feel to be most truly representative of their subject.

STEERE, EDWARD. The Wilderness Campaign. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: The Stackpole Company. 1960. 536 pp. \$7.50. This is a study of one of the Civil Wars most important campaigns. After General Grant's triumph at Vicksburg, he had fallen into virtual retirement. But Lincoln was still seeking a general who could produce a victory. Appointed generalissimo, Grant evolved a strategic plan which involved simultaneous thrusts at the heart of the Confederacy from several directions. He accompanied Meade's Army of the Potomac in its drive south to destroy Lee's Army. The first engagement of this campaign was the Battle of the Wilderness, May 5-6, 1864. Though it was the first test of strength between Grant and Lee, it was an encounter that neither desired. Grant would have preferred to fight in the open country farther south, while Lee wanted to defer fighting until his forces were assembled.

On the first day, Grant attained partial success, but, on the second, Long-street's timely arrival plus Burnside's inexcusable slowness over-balanced Grant's numerical strength. Thus Grant was prevented from fighting the battle of annihilation which he had planned. At the same time Lee was thwarted by Grant's undaunted pugnacity in securing another miracle victory. The battle ended in a tactical draw.

SUTCLIFF, ROSEMARY. Knight's Fee. New York 3: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 101 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 241 pp. \$3.50. Hidden behind the battlements on the roof of the gatehouse crouched Randal, watching for the arrival of High Goch, the new Lord of Arundel Castle. Randal, who had grown up among the castle hounds he tended, loved the pomp and excitement of the celebration. As the cavalcade approached the great gateway, a small thing happened: he dropped the fig he had been eating onto the nose of High's mettlesome horse. A trivial incident, but it changed the life of the boy. It led to Herluin, the gentel minstrel, and Sir Everard, a fine old knight, and Bevis who was to become his friend; it led to intrigue, and squirehood, and, finally, to knighthood,

though the price he paid for this was a heavy one.

TERRAINE, JOHN. Mons. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 60 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 224 pp. \$4.50. The author sub-titles this book "The Retreat to Victory" and, in so doing, he epitomises its subject; Mons takes its place in the history of the British Army beside Corunna and Dunkirk. All three were initial defeats, saved from disaster by the courage of the soldiers and the skill of some of the commanders in the field, and paving the way to great feats of arms and final success. In the context of the whole War, Mons was a smallscale affair: comparatively short in duration, involving divisions rather than armies, and resulting in casualties which were light indeed by the standard of the later battles of attrition. But, especially from the British viewpoint, its importance was crucial, partly because this was the first time for close on a hundred years that a British Army had been engaged in warfare on the Continent of Europe, and partly because that Army passed straight from the dejection of retreat to the exhilaration of the Battle of the Marne-one of the decisive battles of the World.

John Terraine is a young military analyst who is becoming increasingly widely known for his fresh evaluation of the conduct of the First World War. The importance of this book lies not merely in its vivid re-creation of the actual fighting (and here excellent use has been made of the accounts of the participants); even more valuable is Mr. Terraine's appreciation of the characters and conduct of the commanders and strategists of the three armies: Kitchener, French, Haig, and Smith-Dorrien on the British side; Joffre, Lanrezac, Maunoury, and Franchet d'Esperey on the French; and von Schlieffen, von Moltke, von Kluck, and von Bulow on the German. Some 35 illustrations include clear maps, portraits of the generals, and many fresh contemporary photo-

graphs drawn from German as well as Allied sources.

Thomas Jefferson and His World. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 153 pp. Thomas Jefferson appears to have been half a dozen men rolled into one. Most of his mature life was devoted to public affairs. He held public offices ranging from county magistrate in Virginia to President of the United States. But—besides being a legislator, a diplomat, an executive—he was a farmer, a scientist, an architect, an inventor, and a patron of education and the arts. He loved books and believed in people. Most of all, he believed in freedom. He was no soldier, like George Washington, but he fought for what he believed in. He was no orator, like Patrick Henry or Daniel Webster, but he was a remarkably good writer. His words have become famous and are quoted around the world.

This book tells about the most important things that Jefferson did in his long and active life; but, most of all, it tells about him as a person, recapturing the man and his time in words and pictures. Since he was such a many-sided per-

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son, something in him will appeal to practically everybody, regardless of age or locality. This book is a colorful introduction to him and his world and, by means of it, readers can become better acquainted with one of the most interesting men who ever lived. To the outward view, his world was very unlike our own; but men are still struggling for the freedom he championed and, in spirit, he is still very much alive.

ULLMAN, J. R. Down the Colorado with Major Powell. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street. 1960. 184 pp. \$1.68. The river was like a wild beast, growling low in its throat and waiting to spring. Around each mysterious bend might lie perilous rapids. The four little boats, exploring for the first time the canyons of the Green and Colorado Rivers, were tossed like matches on the leaping waters. Then catastrophe overtook the craft containing some of their most precious equipment.

WARD, NANDA. Mister Mergatroid. New York 22: Hastings House, Publisher, Inc., 151 East 50 Street. 1960. 154 pp. \$3. This is a tale of the boys and girls in a London suburb—how they fly kites on the heath, build dummies for Guy Fawke's Day, and deal with the tough boys nearby. It is also a tale of delightfully different happenings—of magical proceedings such as young readers have always wished would happen to them—kites that grow so big you can ride on them; trees that bend at a word so you can climb down from their topmost branches; stones that turn aside revealing staircases downward to gorgeous rooms beneath!

WILSON, HAZEL. Herbert's Homework. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1960. 150 pp. \$2.75. Herbert is back! And with him are his three close friends, Pete, Chuck, and Donny. As the story opens, Herbert's Uncle Horace has just told him of a mysterious birthday present which is planned just for Herbert's seventh-grade year—a year which turns out to be a busy one for Herbert. The present, an electronic homework machine, proves to be a mixed blessing.

WOLPERT, SAUL. Bookkeeping and Accounting, 7th edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1960. 508 pp. \$3.64. This seventh edition presents basic theory, application, and practice in bookkeeping and accounting principles. The general organization of the second edition has been maintained in this edition. The chapters on payroll bookkeeping reflect legislation as of 1960. In planning this book, careful attention has been given to the following: (1) the psychological presentation of topics in an order that facilitates learning and skill-building; (2) the problems of the classroom teacher; (3) the current requirements of business practice; (4) income-tax and social-security problems met by the bookkeeper on the job; (5) the inclusion of special ledgers for controlling accounts; and (6) the handling of petty cash. Endof-chapter materials include more than 300 questions and 250 exercises, providing ample materials for discussion, drill, application, review, testing, and corrective teaching. These materials have been graded as to difficulty to assist the teacher in providing for individual differences.

The Yanks Are Coming. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1960. 182 pp. \$5.95. John J. Pershing was undoubtedly the best-known name in the United States from 1917 to 1919. The first General of the American Expeditionary Force in France in those tumultuous and exciting years. Indomitable and indefatigable in his command, he made possible the bloody glory of Belleau Wood, Chateau Thierry, and the Argonne, and the Armistice of November 1918. Here

for the first time is his story in pictures, from the West Pointer to the four-star General.

His life and military career covered thirty years of our history. Born into a family of Alsatian descent in Laclede, Missouri, in September 1860, he first showed his courage and determination as a frontier school teacher. It was a chance paragraph in the local paper that took him to West Point, where he graduated in the class of 1886 and went immediately on active duty with the Sixth Cavalry in New Mexico against the last of the Apaches.

After some more years of teaching, he returned to active service with the Tenth Cavalry in 1898, to the position of regimental quartermaster of the First Division of the Fifth Corps—and the storming of San Juan Hill, where he won

high praise for his courage and devotion to duty, and a Silver Star.

The 100 and more photographs, many of which have not appeared in a book before, show the handsome, erect, determined figure of "Black Jack" Pershing. The text is based on his own personal papers in the Library of Congress and material from those who knew him.

Pamphlets for Teacher-Pupil Use

ALLISON, JACK. Experimental Tape-Recorder Techniques. Jericho, L. I., New York: the author, English Department, Jericho High School. 1960. 6 pp. (multilithed) 10¢. Describes eight experiments in the teaching of lan-

guage and literature in the high school.

Annotated Bibliography of Materials in Economic Education. 1960-61. New York 36: Joint Council on Economic Education, 2 West 46th Street. 1960. 52 pp. 50¢. Publications best suited to the needs of the teacher engaged in economic education are classified under 14 topical headings such as "Economic Growth and Development," "Fiscal Policy and Money and Banking," "International Economic Institutions," "Population," etc. Each listing is accompanied by an explanatory annotation, the price (if any), and grade-level placement. There is a special Reference and Teaching Aids Section which contains listings of "Aids for Teaching Economic Education," "Periodicals and Bibliographies," and "Reference Aids to Economic Analysis." For the convenience of those wishing to order materials, the bibliography has a directory containing names, addresses, and descriptions of the 193 organizations and agencies whose publications are listed.

Annual Report to Congress 1959. New York 17: Boy's Clubs of America, 381 Fourth Avenue. 1960. 44 pp. Shows the growth of this organization

since it began 100 years ago.

Aviation Education in the Schools. Washington 6, D. C.: National Aviation Education Council, 1025 Connecticut Avenue, N.W. 1960. 14 pp. A statement by the Aviation Education Committee of the American Association of School Administrators.

Aviation Education, The Past, The Present, and The Future. Washington 6, D.C.: National Aviation Education Council, 1025 Connecticut Avenue, N.W. 1960. 32 pp. Contains five papers presented at the second National Conference

on Aviation Education.

CEF Report. Washington 6, D.C.: Committee on Educational Finance, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. August 1960. 16 pp. Published periodically for distribution to school finance leaders. This issue contains information on income elasticity, who pays taxes, U.S. economic growth, school bonds sales from

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January to April 1960, state tax collections from 1959, revenue potentials in the 16 southern states, state and local taxes for 1958, etc.

CLADERWOOD, J. D., and J. C. ALDRICH. A Teachers Guide to World Trade. New York 36: Joint Council on Economic Education, 2 West 46th Street. 1960. 128 pp. \$1. In Part I, "Analysis of the Problem," Dr. Calderwood presents the basic principles and problems in the field of world trade and finance. Beginning with an overview of the world economy, he proceeds to analyze the importance and nature of international trade, discusses barriers to trade among nations, and explains some monetary aspects of trade, such as balance of payments, exchange rates, etc.

Part II, "Teaching Aids," offers suggestions for presenting the topic of world trade not merely in high-school economics courses, but also in courses in civics, American and world history, and problems of democracy. A number of objectives in the way of desired student skills, understandings, attitudes, and behaviors are established and a multitude of activities and projects designed to help attain these goals are enumerated in detail. An entire chapter is devoted to ways of evaluating student progress and achievement.

CLARKSON, J. D.; R. J. KERNER; and THEODORE SHABAD. Understanding the U.S.S.R.—A History of Russia and the U.S.S.R. New York 19: Library and Education Division of Collier's Encyclopedia, 640 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 24 pp. 25¢; 25 or more copies, 15¢ per copy. This booklet contains a comprehensive history of Russia and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, written by three leading authorities in the field. It is compiled from material appearing in the latest edition of Collier's Encyclopedia. In addition to the historical text, the booklet includes an index of related political, sociological, cultural, and economic material found in Collier's Encyclopedia and a list of 30 books devoted to Soviet history.

Classroom Aids for Teachers. Edmonton, Alberta, Canada: Assistant Director of Curriculum in Charge of Elementary Education, Department of Education. 1960. 96 pp. An annotated list of free and expensive resource materials of teaching aids.

Cooperative Research Projects. Washington 25, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 64 pp. 25¢. Provides practitioners, researchers, and others interested in education with information concerning research projects that are being supported under the Cooperative Research Program. A brief description of each project initiated during fiscal year 1959 is included. Each description presents a statement of the problem under investigation, lists the major objectives, and describes the research procedures to be followed. At the end of each description are listed the name and title of the investigator, the name of the institution which he represents, the number of the project, its duration, and its beginning and completion dates.

Since most of the research described in this bulletin is still underway, no findings are reported. Copies of the reports of the completed projects are available through inter-library loan, and brief summaries of these final reports can be obtained free upon request from the Cooperative Research Branch. Information about incomplete projects can be obtained from the investigator.

Disarmament at a Glance. Washington 25, D.C.: The Department of State. 1960. 21 pp. Free. Sets in perspective the positions of the United States, the Allied powers, and the Soviet bloc on various aspects of the problem of arms limitation and control as they stood on June 27, 1960, when the Soviet bloc abruptly "walked out" of the negotiations of the Conference of the Ten

Nations Committee on Disarmament. The Allied powers were the United States, United Kingdom, France, Canada, Italy and the Soviet bloc nations were U.S.S.R., Poland, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, and Rumania.

DRESSEL, P. L., and M. R. LORIMER. Attitudes of Liberal Arts Faculty Members Toward Liberal and Professional Education. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 63 pp. Deals with the attitudes of faculty member in liberal arts colleges toward the liberal arts subjects which professional students ought to pursue as a part of their undergraduate education.

EDLEFSEN, J. B., and M. J. CROWE. Teenagers' Occupational Aspirations. Pullman: Washington State University, Washington Agricultural Experiment Stations, Institute of Agricultural Sciences. 1960. 22 pp. Provides help for parents, teachers, and vocational counselors in assisting students in choosing an occupation based on an analysis of occupational plans of teenagers in four school districts of the state.

ELFERS, ASHWORTH, REED. Impact. New York 27: Friendship Press, 475 Riverside Drive. 1960. 125 pp. \$1.50. The exploration of an idea.

The First Two R's . . . Plus. Champaign, Illinois: The National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street. 1960. 12 pp. 1 to 10 copies, 10¢ each; 11 to 50 copies, 5¢ each; over 50 copies, 3¢ each. This brochure discusses: What Is English? What Is Good English? Why Isn't English Teaching More Successful? What Should Elementary and Secondary Schools and Colleges and Universities Accomplish? etc.

FUSCO, G. C. Technology in the Classroom, Challenges to the School Administrator. Washington 25, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. A reprint from the School Life, March-May 1960. Discusses the effect of technology in influencing the instructional process. Subscription rates School Life: domestic, \$1 per year; foreign, \$1.50; one-, two-, and three-year subscriptions available.

Girl Scouts of the United States of America. Washington 25, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 104 pp. The tenth annual report to Congress; describes the activities of the Girl Scout organization during the fiscal year ending September 30, 1959.

GIVENS, W. E., and B. M. FARLEY. The Road to Freedom. Washington 9, D.C.: The Supreme Council, 33, 1733 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 64 pp. 15¢. This booklet has been published as a contribution to the mighty efforts that free men everywhere are making to awaken people to the menaces and dangers lurking on the road to freedom. It tells the interesting and fascinating story of the struggles made and victories won along the road to freedom since 3500 B.C. It points out that the road to freedom has been long and tortuous. Only a relatively small portion of the human race has been able to travel it successfully. For the great mass of mankind, the attainment of freedom has proven extremely difficult.

GRAMBS, J. D., editor. Abraham Lincoln Through the Eyes of High-School Youth. Washington 6, D.C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1959. 78 pp. Contains poems, essays, plays, etc., written by students and teachers during the 150th anniversary of the birth of Lincoln. These were selected from a large number that were submitted during the year. Contains good suggestions for high-school assembly programs.

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——. Understanding Intergroup Relations. Washington 6, D.C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 32 pp. 25¢ (single copy). The author draws from research material on teaching intergroup relations the items which promise to be of most help to classroom teachers.

Guiding Metropolitan Growth. New York 22: Committee for Economic Development, 711 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 47 pp. (7" x 11"). \$2. The Concentration of two thirds of the American people in fast growing metropolitan areas that are decaying at the core is an urgent national problem, the Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development (CED) states in this four-point program. The nation's 192 metropolitan areas are governed by 16,000 local jurisdictions that have "struggled hard to maintain a semblance of orderly growth and to supply the increasing demands for public service." But they "have failed in one crucial area of public responsibility: they cannot plan, budget, and program ahead for the entire metropolitan area."

Reorganization of local political structures to enable governments to handle metropolitan-wide problems was urged as one of the four steps needed to meet "the major shifts of people and industry" that have "strained the social fabric and overloaded time-honored political institutions." "The Committee believes that the time has come to adapt our local governments in metropolitan areas so as to enable them to carry out more efficiently and effectively those public responsibilities which are clearly metropolitan in scope."

INGLIS, D. R. Testing and Taming of Nuclear Weapons. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 East 38th Street. 1960. 28 pp. 25¢. Sets forth the technical difficulties of detecting underground nuclear tests and of developing a fully effective system of inspection.

JOHNSTON, M. C.; ILO REMER; and F. L. SIEVERS. Modern Foreign Languages: A Counselor's Guide. Washington 25, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 71 pp. 30¢. Counseling pupils of high-school age about foreign language programs fitted to their needs and abilities is somewhat more difficult than in the past, both because the objectives are different and because a thorough-going revision of language instruction is taking place at all levels of the school system. Guidance workers, teachers, principals, and parents who have the responsibility of helping pupils plan their program of study frequently feel a need for basic information about foreign language. This bulletin provides such general orientation for counselors.

KING, C. G., and GWEN LAM. Personality "Plus" Through Diet-Food-lore for Teenagers. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 East 38th Street. 1960. 25¢. Points out that the degree of importance of each food depends on the nutrients it contains. Makes suggestions as to the proper diet for teenagers. Protein is a nutrient which builds all cells in the body. It's essential for life and growth. Whether the teenager will have firm, smooth muscles or weak and "flabby" ones is based on the amount and quality of protein supplied by the food he eats. Excellent suppliers are meat, fish, poultry, eggs, milk, cheese, dried peas, beans, and nuts.

LAFITTE, LUCETTE. Le Cirque Zanzibar. New York 22: Cambridge University Press, 32 East 57th Street. 1960. 63 pp. 75¢. Contains 11 stories in simple French with questions and exercise, a list of verbs, vocabulary, and pronunciation aids.

LEACH, G. C. Spectator Control at Interscholastic Basketball Games. New Rochelle, New York: Sportshelf. 1960. 32 pp. \$1. This booklet presents information on spectator control at high-school athletic contests. Very little information about solving this perplexing problem can be found in print.

Learn and Live. Washington 6, D.C.: National Association of Broadcasters, 1771 North Street, N.W. 1960. 16 pp. Describes the National Association's special public service project, Learn and Live, that will be carried by radio and TV stations and networks. Also contains a list, by states and cities,

of stations taking part in the Learn and Live project.

LLOYD, A. C.; J. L. ROWE; and F. E. WINGER. Typing Skill Drives. New York 36: Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1960. 48 pp. \$1.40. A compilation of special type-writing exercises designed to help typists correct and strengthen their typing habits and improve their basic speed and accuracy. This can be used alone or in conjunction with the teaching tapes for Typing Skill Drive now available for

classroom use from the publishers of the book.

MARVEL, LORENE. The Music Consultant At Work. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960, 79 pp. \$1.75. The relationships and ways of working together of the elementary-school principal, music consultant, general elementary supervisor, and classroom teacher will determine the quality of music opportunities provided in the school. Among the questions encountered when attention is focused on relationships between the music consultant and classroom teacher are the following: What factors are peculiar to their relationships? What other relationships influence the work of the music consultant and the classroom teacher? Should each school (or all teachers within a particular school) use the services of the consultant in the same way? What and who determines the kind of services scheduled? In what ways can the music consultant help the classroom teacher discover herself musically? How can the music consultant develop and maintain good human relations? In what ways can the music consultant and classroom teacher work together to discover the "real" musical interests of children? This is a report of this study. The five topics discussed are: Consultant and Teacher Work with Children; Consultant and Teacher Work Together Outside the Classroom; The Consultant Works with the Principal; Other Consultant Relationships; and The Music Consultant.

MATHIEU, GUSTAVE, and J. S. HOLTON. Suggestions for Teaching Foreign Languages by the Audio-Lingual Method. Sacramento: California State Department of Education. 1960. 34 pp. This bulletin is designed to be of assistance in the solution of the problems encountered in using the audio-lingual method of foreign language instruction. Major emphasis, however, is upon the preparation of pattern drills for use in the classroom or language

laboratory

MURRAY, L. S. Effective Living. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street. 1960. 307 pp. \$3.75. The purpose of this book is to introduce the student to interdisciplinary approaches in personality development. Profound thinkers and scholars in science, medicine, psychology, anthropology, sociology, philosophy, religion, and other fields have made great contributions to the study of man and the fulfillment of his destiny. Investigation of these findings will be of inestimable value in the individual growth process. Be ready to explore investigations, to coordinate scientific findings in the various disciplines, and to make use of them in your own long-range planning. The book is composed of 42 chapters treating such subjects as going to college; heredity; individual development; family life; emotional growth;

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mastery of self, time habits, and skills; how to study; using the library; personal adjustment; manners; dating, philosophy of life; planning for success in marriage; and many other related areas that have a bearing on effective living.

New Developments and Their Impacts. Washington 5, D.C.: American Vocational Association, Inc., 1010 Vermont Avenue, N.W. 1960. 12 pp. Discusses these as they affect trade and industrial and practical arts education. Also available from the same source are: Distributive Education (10 pp.) and Occupational Distribution: A Factor in Educational Planning (6 pp.)

OBOURN, E. S.; C. L. KOELSCHE; K. E. BROWN; and D. W. SNADER. Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools 1958, Part 1, General Facilities and Equipment. Washington 25, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 79 pp. 30¢. A study to help in locating shortages in adequate facilities and equipment and to show their nature with the hope that this report will point the way to effective use of funds now available through NDEA.

100 Selected Films in Economic Education. New York 36: Joint Council on Economic Education, 2 West 46th Street. 1960. 40 pp. 75¢. A selective listing of those films deemed most useful in the teaching of subjects which require economic understandings. Each film listing includes a grade placement indication, suggestions for areas of curriculum use, a synopsis, questions raised by the film, and suggestions for student activities to be pursued in connection with the film. Necessary data on producer, year of production, viewing time and specifications of sound, black and white or color are also given, and there is a directory of film producers with suggestions on how to obtain films for classroom use.

Phonograph Records for Classroom and Library. New York 7: Educational Record Sales, 153 Chambers Street. 1960. 48 pp. In cooperation with the major phonograph record companies, Educational Record Sales has compiled a list of the finest available recordings especially selected for ready integration in the kindergarten to twelfth grade school programs. Records are arranged according to subject areas and grades. Included are excellent sections on music appreciation, rhythms, square dance, social studies, language art, etc.

Pictures, Pamphlets, and Packets. Washington 6, D.C.: National Aviation Education Council, 1025 Connecticut Avenue. 1960. 27 pp. An annotated list of free and inexpensive teaching aids for air-space age education.

Policies on Education and the 1960 Elections. Washington 6, D.C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 8-page tolder. Free. The resolution on Federal support of education adopted by the NEA Representative Assembly in Los Angeles, July 1, 1960.

The Power of the Democratic Idea. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc. 1960. 83 pp. 75¢. "A realistic yet hopeful statement of the idea of democracy as it has found expression in the American scene," as stated in the Foreword. This is the sixth report of the Rockefeller Brothers Fund's Special Studies Project.

Professional Preparation for Teachers of Exceptional Children. Washington 25, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 149 pp. 45¢. This bulletin, in its six chapters, covers several major parts of the nationwide study. Opinions are reported on teacher competencies in the ten areas of exceptionality (chapter II), on professional preparation of such teachers (chapter III), and on their in-service education (chapter V). While some of these findings have

been published previously in the separate bulletins, opinions from all areas of exceptionality are brought together and re-examined in order to provide in this report a cross-sectional view for special education. Qualifications and preparation needed by college staff members, which had not been published previously, are reported in considerable detail (chapter IV). The bulletin concludes with a brief summary together with some implications for future planning (chapter VI).

REALS, W. H. Planning a Successful Retirement. St. Louis 30: University College, Washington University. 1960. 39 pp. \$1 (single copy). Discusses money matters, health, opportunities, use of time, etc. in planning for successful retirement.

RICH, W. B. Approval and Accreditation of Public Schools. Washington 25, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 49 pp. 40¢. This study is another in the series of status studies on responsibilities and services of state departments of education issued by the U.S. Office of Education. This bulletin presents data regarding the varied approval and accreditation of programs of state departments of education. It contains information on all types of programs, including those which involve only basic approved functions, as well as those with highly developed accreditation criteria and evaluation procedures.

ROBERTS, D. F. La Ligue des Chamois. New York 22: Cambridge University Press, 32 East 57th Street. 1960. 60 pp. 75¢. Contains simple French reading with vocabulary.

ROBERTS, E. E. Operation IQ. Buffalo 3: Henry Stewart, Inc., 210 Ellicott Street. 1960. 127 pp. \$2. The author acknowledges the chasm between high school and college and the adjustment that it necessitates. He emphasizes that it is important to begin in the right manner; to recognize at the outset certain values predetermined by the successes of others; to know that one is no longer a child but is accepted as an adult; that the hours ahead demand intelligent planning, and that the cultural and financial awards ahead are well worth the relatively little discipline, good sense, and will power that it takes to get a degree.

STEWART, M. S. Labor and the Public. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 East 38th Street. 1960. 20 pp. 25¢. Contains papers presented at the Conference on Labor's Public Responsibility by the National Institute of Labor Education held at the University of Wisconsin, November 17-20, 1959.

The Story of World Trade. Wilmington, Delaware: E. I. duPont De Nemours and Company. 1960. 32 pp. In text and picture, this is a booklet about the rivalry among nations with similar technical skills and varying social structures and ideologies.

TOLLIVER, W. E., and H. H. ARMSBY. Engineering Enrollments and Degrees 1959. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendents of Documents. 1960. 53 pp. 40¢. Provides data on enrollments in institutions of higher education conferring engineering degrees.

UMBECK, NELDA, and R. C. M. FLYNT. State Legislation of School Attendance and Related Matters—School Census and Child Labor. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 33 pp. 30¢. An analysis of state legislation enacted in this area.

United States Air Force Occupational Handbook—1960-61. Washington 25, D.C.: Headquarters United States Air Force, The Pentagon. 1960. 190 pp. Free from the local Air Force Recruiting Service representative. This book, annually brought up to date, has been prepared to help in counseling youth on their future in the Armed Forces—the Air Force as one of the Services. Although it deals primarily with airmen (enlisted) career opportunities, it also contains valuable information on the various ways in which qualified individuals can obtain an Air Force commission. More than ever before, a young person must have the best possible educational base he can obtain if he is to achieve his career goals and be of maximum service to his country. It is, therefore, the firm belief of the Air Force that high-school students should stay in school, graduate, and then, if they can, go on to college. An individual's value to the Air Force and to himself is in direct proportion to his natural capabilities as developed by education.

United States Government Awards Under the Fulbright and Smith-Mundt Acts. Washington 25, D.C.: Conference Board of Associated Research Councils, 2101 Constitution Avenue. 1960. 104 pp. Describes awards for University lecturing, advanced Research, and seminars under the Fulbright and the Smith-Mundt Acts that are available for 1961-62 in Europe, the Near East, the Far East, and Africa.

WELCH, R. C. Promising Practices in Elementary School Mathematics. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, Box 47. 1960. 60 pp. \$1.25. Describes actual classroom practices in Indiana to assist teachers help pupils develop a breadth and depth of understanding in mathematics.

Year-Round School. Washington 6, D.C.: American Association of School Administrations, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 26 pp. \$1. Discounts 2-9 copies, 10%; 10 or more copies, 20%. Describes four plans being used and critically analyzes each. The four plans are: (1) a 48-week, four quarter, staggered-vacation school year; (2) a full 48-week school year in which students attend the four quarters with acceleration as a possibility; (3) a program of 36 to 40 weeks with a summer program varying in length from four to twelve weeks; (4) a program of 36 to 40 weeks for students with the faculty serving an additional 10-12 weeks devoted to workshops and other professional improvement.

You and Your Career. New York 19: Collier's Encyclopedia, Library and Educational Division, 640 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 32 pp. $(7\frac{1}{2}" \times 10\frac{1}{4}")$, paperbound. 50¢. Provides basic information about the educational requirements and other prerequisites for many different fields of interest, with special emphasis on scientific careers. Attractively printed in two colors on white stock, the booklet serves to help students with the all-important task of selecting a lifetime vocation. The material for the booklet has been gathered from articles on career guidance and careers in science which originally appeared in Collier's Encyclopedia Year Book.

News Notes

HANDBOOK ON THE OPAQUE PROJECTOR

A new handbook, The Opaque Projector, the tenth in the University of Texas' Visual Instruction Bureau's series of visualized handbooks entitled "Bridges for Ideas," has been prepared in response to requests from readers of previous publications, more than 20,000 of which are now in use in every state and many foreign countries. Prepared by Dr. Kenneth L. Bowers, associate in the Bureau's production department, this handbook describes the use of this equipment in general, with special suggestions for its use in various areas of education. It explains the nature of the opaque projector, listing its advantages and enumerating its uses. It discusses the preparation of materials for projection and how to plan a presentation. Defining good projector practice and explaining specialized techniques, it outlines procedures for care and maintenance. Included is a selected bibliography of books, periodicals, and bulletins. Single copies may be ordered at \$2 each from the Visual Instruction Bureau, Division of Extension, University of Texas, Austin 12, Texas. The following discounts are offered: two to nine copies-10 per cent; 10-99 copies-25 per cent; and 100 copies or more-331/3 per cent.

KIT OFFERS STIMULATING EXPERIMENTS

An unusual science kit, which enables students to perform their own experiments in the operations of magnetism, has been announced by the Science Education Division of the Product Design Company at Redwood City, California. The new Magnets and Coils Kit is one of a series of working models prepared by the Division. The series of kits can be used by teachers in the fifth to ninth grades as a dramatic aid to science teaching. Teachers may utilize them for classroom demonstrations, and schools may purchase several for each class so groups of students working together may learn better by "seeing and doing."

The kit on Magnets and Coils includes three Alnico magnets, four coils, three erection bases, tool steel, six pieces of iron, a battery with leads, a magnetic wand, magnet wire, four compasses, iron filings, and various supports and accessories. Accompanying illustrated instructions outline basic facts about magnetism, and set forth ten simple experiments which can be performed with the kit. Teachers and students can of course develop many original experiments with the equipment included in the kit.

As a key aid to effective learning, the experiments outlined in the instructions are carefully arranged to help the student proceed logically from one step to the next. Starting with the lodestone and the role of the earth as a magnet, the experiments move forward to a study of magnetic fields in general. They then proceed to electromagnetism, and an analysis by means of experiments of the interactions between magnets and coils.

The Magnets and Coils Kit Model No. 506 has been approved by many states for 50 per cent Federal aid assistance under the National Defense Education Act. Details and cost information on this model and the company's other science teaching tools can be secured from the Science Education Division, Product Design Company, 2796 Middlefield Road, Redwood City, California.

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Sixty-one per cent of public school administrators think students should be permitted to drop out of school after their 16th birthday, a poll by the *Nation's Schools* magazine shows. Other surveys by the same magazine show:

- New Jersey has a law prohibiting teachers from administering corporal punishment under any and all conditions.
- Should high schools recognize that teen-agers do smoke and set up regulations and provide smoking areas? A poll by The Nation's Schools magazine found 87 per cent of public school administrators questioned were against the idea.
- Approximately 100,000 new teachers are expected to enter the nation's classrooms this fall.
- A poll by *The Nation's Schools* magazine has found that 88 per cent of the school superintendents agree a lunch program should be subsidized but only 40 per cent feel the aid should come solely from the federal government.
- Only 26 per cent of school superintendents questioned in a poll by The Nation's Schools, a professional magazine, say they favor requiring all students to attend 12 full grades of schooling.

125,000 STUDENTS TESTED, SCORES SENT TO 1,000 COLLEGES

Three hundred sixty-eight colleges and universities participated in the first year of the American College Testing Program by officially requiring or recommending that their prospective applicants for admission take the ACT test. As a result, more than 125,000 high-school students took the test on the three Saturdays in 1959-60 on which it was offered.

Reports of the test scores made by the 125,604 students who took the ACT test on the three Saturdays were sent not only to the 368 participating colleges but to approximately 1,000 colleges throughout the country. Scores are sent to colleges indicated by the student as ones in which he is interested. More than 6,000 high schools also received reports of their students' scores.—ACT Forum.

BUYER'S GUIDE FOR SCIENCE TEACHERS

A supplier of teaching and laboratory materials for biological and medical science for over forty years has published a Buyer's Guide for Science Teaching. This 80-page, illustrated Guide contains a selection of those products necessary for an effective secondary-school science teaching program. The Guide will be especially helpful for those schools participating in the Title III Program of the National Defense Education Act. Many of the products featured in the Guide are similar to those which appear in the Title III purchase guide prepared by the Council of Chief State School Officers. Copies of the Buyer's Guide for Science Teaching may be obtained by writing (on school letterhead) to Clay-Adams, Inc., 141 East 25th Street, New York 10, New York.

CATALOG FOR MAGNIFIERS

Bausch & Lomb has revised the very popular descriptive catalog which covers a complete line of readers and magnifiers. New items have been added

to the 14-page illustrated booklet, which lists over 65 individual models (powers form 2x to 20x). Specifications and prices are included for an extensive selection of round and rectangular readers, folding pocket magnifiers, watchmaker's loupes, surface comparators, enlarging focusing magnifiers, etc. Businessmen, teachers, students, technical personnel and others who use magnifiers for any purpose, will find the introductory text especially valuable. Helpful tips on correct working distance, how to determine magnifying power, field of view factors and the proper magnifier for individual job requirements are discussed in detail. The booklet is available free by writing to Bausch & Lomb Incorporated, Rochester 2, N. Y., specifying Catalog I-103.

CLASSROOM AIDS TO TEACH HISTORY OF LIGHT

Pioneer Scientific Corporation, a subsidiary of Bausch & Lomb, announces several new low-priced classroom aids for teaching the principles of polarized light. The new materials are especially designed for demonstration, since students learn the theory and performance of light most easily and thoroughly through visual impressions. A unique selection of tabletop demonstrators and polarizing materials allows the teacher to direct both group discussions and individual student studies.

The Pioneer Tabletop Demonstrator is an extremely effective way of presenting to a large class the theory that light travels in a complex arrangement of transverse wave motions. The Demonstrator consists of translucent screen, a sheet of high quality polarizing material and tip-proof wooden stand. Birefringent materials are supplied which make it possible for each student to see shifting colors and patterns indicating the effects of internal strain, pressure or torque in solid objects. Students can then understand these basic principles as applied to testing structural designs of bridge girders, aircraft, etc.

For more detailed experimentation, a comprehensive selection of 14 polarized materials is offered in the Pioneer Advanced Classroom Demonstrator. A new, up-to-the-minute text, *Polarization of Light*, offers brief reviews of light theories, the basic phenomena of polarized light and suggestions for class demonstrations as well as 8 groups of experiments using materials in the kit.

The Pioneer Basic Classroom Demonstrator is designed for small group or individual use. This includes two polarizers and specimens of mica, benzoic acid and calcite, together with an instruction sheet, making teacher supervision almost unnecessary.

A Vertical Polariscope, designed for instant examination of polarized light and analysis of stress, is well-suited for both classroom and laboratory. The unit is completely self-contained, operates on any 115-volt circuit and has a 4" field of view. Analyzer is adjustable to accommodate specimens up to 5" in height, and is suited for routine testing as well as special experiments.

The basic text, *Polarization of Light*, by Professor Hollis Todd, is an excellent introduction to the study of light and of polarization in particular. A full list of demonstrations and experiments is included, which makes the text a valuable guidebook for classroom and laboratory use.

The Pioneer Tabletop Demonstrator is priced at \$34.50, Advanced Classroom Demonstrator, at \$29.50. Each unit includes one copy of the text. Basic Classroom Demonstrator (does not include text) is \$4.95. Vertical Polariscope

is priced at \$59.50. Individual copies of *Polarization of Light* are available at \$1.00, and additional polarizing materials may be ordered separately to supplement standard kits. For further information, write to Pioneer Scientific Corporation, 645 St. Paul St., Rochester 2, New York, specifying bulletin No. 61-12.

FOUR FILM SERIES COVERING PROBLEMS OF COMMUNICATION

Indiana University has available four film series that present a comprehensive variety of communications techniques that may be utilized to facilitate a better exchange of ideas in human communication and interaction. The four series are Language in Action; The Quill; Language and Linguistics; and Talking Sense. The films are designed for use in high school. Each program is produced in black and white and is 30 minutes in length. Language in Action provides an introduction to the science of general semantics and an explanation of fundamental processes of human communication. The Quill is designed to promote clear, concise, and effective writing techniques. Special attention is given to methods of sentence construction, paragraph organization, and good word usage. Language and Linguistics provides a general approach to beginning linguistics and covers the nature, structure, and development of language. It explains the relationships that exist between language, experience, writing, and culture, and how these relationships help form the basis for all human interaction. Talking Sense discusses ways to improve our talking-listeningthinking activities for better communication. Purchase or rental information as well as additional information about any of the four film series may be obtained by writing to NET Film Service, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

PROJECT HOPE I

The People-to-People Health Foundations, a non-government organization, has initiated a new project this fall in its program of promoting world peace through increased understanding between the people of the United States and those of other nations. The People-to-People concept is based on the belief of individual Americans that better understanding among the peoples of the world can be achieved on a personal level through friendship, through sharing knowledge, and through helping others to help themselves. Such people-to-people contacts will help form the basis of a lasting peace.

This new activity of the Foundation is known as Project HOPE I. The word HOPE signifies Health Opportunity for People Everywhere.

The USS Consolation, an 800-bed, 15,000-ton vessel constructed during World War II, has been reconditioned with the latest medical equipment for the enterprise as a floating medical center and school. The Project's primary objective is to bring to the medical professions and auxiliary medical and health people of other countries the latest medical information and techniques developed by the American medical professions. The permanent medical staff is made up of 15 physicians—experts in various fields of medicine and surgery—2 dentists, 25 graduate nurses, and 30 auxiliary personnel. In addition, up to 35 physicians will be flown to the ship on a rotating basis for tours of four months. While some of the rotating doctors will remain on board ship, others will travel inland with mobile units.

The \$3.5 million needed to operate the ship for a year will be made up of contributions from business and industry, labor unions, groups, and individuals

throughout the country.

A liaison team headed by Dr. Mark Beaubien and Guy R. Kirkendall has been at work in Djakarta, Indonesia, for the past few months. The SS Hope will arrive in Djakarta on October 18, 1960. With the cooperation of the Indonesian Ministry of Health, the itinerary developed includes Makassar, Ambon, Kupang, Bima, Padang Bai, Surabaya, Samarang, and back to Djakarta by April 23, 1961, from whence it will go to Singapore, arriving by April 29, 1961.

HOPE will be entirely dependent upon the widespread and enthusiastic support of the American public. An appeal is being made to the American people for contribution. All contributions are tax deductible. This might well become a most worth-while project for high schools throughout the nation. Contribution should be sent to HOPE Project, 1818 M Street, N.W., Washing-

ton 6, D. C. For complete information, write to the same address.

ENROLLMENT INCREASE PREDICTED THIS FALL

Enrollment in the nation's public and private schools from kindergarten through college, increasing for the 16th consecutive year, will reach a new all-time high of 48,650,000 in the 50 states and the District of Columbia in the school year 1960-61, U.S. Commissioner of Education Lawrence G. Derthick has predicted. This is an increase of nearly two million over the enrollment of 46,720,000 for the 1959-60 school year. Alaska and Hawaii were not counted in the Office of Education estimates for 1959-60 made in August 1959. Excluding them from the 1960-61 estimate, enrollment will be about 48,400,000.

Commissioner Derthick also estimated that 1,636,000 classroom teachers will be needed by the public and nonpublic elementary and secondary schools in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. This number is almost four per cent

greater than the 1,574,000 employed in 1959-60.

Anticipated enrollments in public and nonpublic schools from kindergarten through grade 8 are estimated at 34,380,000 for the 50 states and the District of Columbia, an increase of one million. In grades 9 through 12, the increase will be about 700,000—from 9,590,000 to 10,290,000. In institutions of higher education, both public and private, an enrollment increase of 230,000—from

3,750,000 to 3,980,000 is anticipated.

The rising enrollment rates in kindergarten, elementary, and secondary schools are due chiefly to the increased birth rates since the first years of World War II. However, the increase in college enrollments should be attributed mostly to a growing interest in attending college among high-school graduates and the college-age population generally, Commissioner Derthick said, since the rising birth rate has not yet had time to affect college enrollments materially—Higher Education and National Affairs, American Council on Education.

1.200 MILLION MILES TO SCHOOL

The August 1960 issue of *Overview* (pages 35-37) reports a study of transportation of pupils to our schools. This study was done by the *Overview* staff. Pupil transportation is big business in our nation's schools. New York's transportation mileage was the highest with 91 million miles, Texas was second with 84 million miles. Some of the findings of this study which is based on the 1958-59 school year are: Number of pupils carried—11,676,581; Percentage of





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School Address

enrollment—33; Millions of miles traveled—1,200; Number of busses—153,722; Percentage of contract busses—31; Amount expended—\$418,726,333; Amount of state aid—\$261,774,017; Cost per mile—36¢; Cost per pupil—\$37.

This report shows that the states of New Mexico and North Carolina provide 100% of the cost of transportation, while no part of the cost is borne by 6

states: Arizona, Hawaii, Nebraska, New Hampshire, and the Dakotas.

Twelve states transports 45% or more of their pupils—Louisiana (54%); Missouri (53%); Georgia and South Carolina (51% each); West Virginia (50%); Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, and Virginia (49% each); Idaho and Maine (47% each); and Tennessee (45%). Three states transports 10% or fewer of their pupils—Nebraska and South Dakota (10% each) and Hawaii (6%).

The cost per pupil ranges from a high of \$133 in South Dakota to a low of \$15 in North Carolina. The cost per mile ranges from a high of 66 cents in

Oklahoma to a low of 16 cents in South Carolina.

To transport all these pupils requires a large number of busses. New York state reports the most busses in use—9,189. Other states in order report as follow: Ohio, 8,296; Pennsylvania, 8,684; Texas, 8,154; and North Carolina, 8,068.

FOR COLLEGE-BOUND STUDENTS

Publication of two informative and inexpensive guides for the college-bound student has been announced by the Kiplinger Washington Editors, publishers of the Kiplinger Letters and Changing Times magazine. The new booklets are How About College Financing? prepared by the American School Counselors Association on a grant from the Kiplinger Association, and Making Plans for College? by the editors of Changing Times. Both are of particular interest to counselors, as well as to students and their parents.

How About College Financing? is specifically designed for those who, for the first time, are facing problems of higher educational costs. In this 20-page booklet, a national board of educators deals with the related topics of college costs, meeting the costs, and keeping expenses down. A work sheet is included with the booklet, which is available for 30 cents from the American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington 9, D.C. A special edition of the booklet for counselors is available at \$1.

Paying for college also is discussed in *Making Plans for College?* This 24-page booklet has additional articles on getting into a good college, colleges with more room, two-year colleges, scholarships, and school guidance programs. Copies are available for 25 cents from *Changing Times* Reprint Service, 1729 H Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

A POSTER-TYPE GUIDE OF OUR NATION'S PAST

The Panopticon of American History—a fact-filled, illustrated, four-color, poster-type guide to our nation's past—has been issued by the University of Michigan Press in time for the new school year. Prepared by the Department of History, the Panopticon leads both students and grownups in need of a "refresher" through American history from the earliest explorations to our own day. Reading downward—the Panopticon gives significant names, events, and dates decade by decade. Reading across—it follows the procession of national leaders, famous personalities, and cultural developments.



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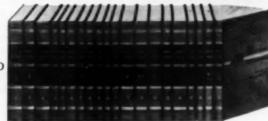


Students learn to rely on World Book in the early grades as they develop the "look it up" habit and research skills. As they progress through school, World Book Encyclopedia actually "grows" with them! Articles are interestingly written and edited to meet the needs of students at the level where the topic is generally studied. Indeed, each class that uses World Book is better prepared.



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As a quick, accurate reference guide for teachers and students, the *Panopticon* can be hung in classrooms and school libraries. This useful wall chart measures 36" x 47" and displays nearly 100 illustrations of Presidents, State Seals, and historic United States flags. It is printed in full color on a heavy art stock. *The Panopticon of American History* complements *The United States*, the recently published two-volume history of our country by Michael Kraus and Foster Rhea Dulles, and will be sent on request to every school which orders *The United States*. This much-praised two-volume set is part of "The University of Michigan History of the Modern World," edited by Allan Nevins and Howard Ehrmann.

NEA SURVEYS NEW TRENDS FOR COMING SCHOOL YEAR

The proverbial "10 o'clock scholar" in the coming school year may turn out to be, not a late comer, but a hard working student, still boning away at his homework at 10 p.m. A lengthening school day is one of the trends uncovered by the National Education Association. Television courses, before or after the regular school day, will often serve to stretch the instruction period in some school systems, such as Columbus, Ohio. Miami, Florida will have "early bird classes," starting in the schools at 7:30 a.m., offering music, typing, and other subjects difficult to fit into the regular school day. Grosse Pointe, Michigan is one of the school systems putting a new stress on the need for homework which may require students burning the midnight oil. Washington, D.C. will have one elementary school, with city-wide enrollment of selected pupils, offering a stiff curriculum in the basic subjects and a heavy emphasis on learning and competition. Some of the trends in high schools of the nation uncovered in the NEA survey were:

Akron, Ohio-Will begin a fully articulated eight-year foreign language program, starting with the fifth grade and continuing through high school. French

and Spanish will be offered.

Chicago, Illinois—Undertaking a major study of high-school dropouts, seeking a program of studies that might keep these students in school.

Des Moines, Iowa—One American literature class will have 420 pupils. Three teachers will work with the class during the day, individually and in small groups.

East Baton Rouge, Louisiana-Junior and senior high schools will use newly developed mathematics materials of the School Mathematics Study Group on an experimental basis.

Erie, Pennsylvania-Special classes for 25 highly gifted senior high-school student will do college level work.

Grosse Pointe, Michigan—Has a new report card system which continues the A B C scale, but henceforth it will represent the cumulative grade instead of work during the current marking period; it also has prepared a pamphlet to educate parents on the need for homework and what they should do about it.

Mineola, New York—Final year of controlled experiment to determine if able pupils, attending school 11 months a year, can do four years of work in three years.

Newark, New Jersey-Russian is offered in two high schools, a three-year course; accelerated mathematics course to offer college-level work in fourth year for talented high-school students.

Dwight D. Eisenhower established the AMERICAN ASSEMBLY AT COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY in 1950 to inform the public on current issues and "to help search out wise answers to national policy questions." The ASSEMBLY, to meet the growing demand for its books, has concluded a joint publishing arrangement with PRENTICE-HALL. The first of the series are:

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND HIGHER EDUCATION

edited by DOUGLAS M. KNIGHT, Lawrence College

Six distinguished authorities discuss the roles of the federal government and the nation's colleges and universities in determining the future of higher education in America. They assess the accomplishments and shortcomings of past and present federal action in higher education and define the immediate and long-range problems.

SPECTRUM Paper Edition: \$1.95 Library Edition: \$3.50

1960 205 pp.

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The Report of the President's Commission on National Goals

HENRY M. WRISTON, Chairman of the Commission

President Eisenhower appointed the Commission on National Goals, a non-partisan body privately supported and not directly connected with the government. This book, containing the Commission's report to the President, sets a series of goals for vital areas of national life and develops programs for action in the Sixties. Authorities contribute their critical studies of education, science, government and other key areas.

December 1960 256 pp. SPECTRUM Paper Edition: \$1.00
Library Edition: \$3.50

THE SECRETARY OF STATE

edited by DON K. PRICE, Harvard University

This book examines the office of the Secretary of State, describing and criticizing the many complex roles and relationships that make the office what it is today. Those who have contributed to the study are: Dean Acheson, Robert Bowie, John Sloan Dickey, William Y. Elliot, Paul Nitze and Henry M. Wriston.

December 1960 200 pp. SPECTRUM Paper Edition: \$1.95
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Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey

Oakland, California—Talented high-school pupils will be offered advanced physics and electronics in specially equipped laboratory added to Chabot Observatory, owned and operated by Oakland School District. Aim is to develop total science center for Oakland public schools.

Palo Alto, California—Pilot study on guidance in secondary schools aimed at meeting recommendations in Conant report.

Portland, Oregon—Curriculum revision aimed at improving content and instruction in language arts, social studies, science, mathematics, and foreign languages for college-bound and other capable students; summer institutes and campus courses to step up preparation of teachers for this revision were held last summer and are scheduled for two following summers.

Salt Lake City, Utah—West High School will have ability grouping in English, social studies, science, and mathematics; courses are planned for slow learners, average, and gifted; also, new courses in arts and business education.

Scranton, Pennsylvania—Follow-up study of all 1959 high-school graduates to be made at one and five-year periods. Purpose: to evaluate curriculum and guidance programs of the schools in the light of later educational and occupational experiences of graduates.

Tacoma, Washington—Research project to determine effectiveness of electronic foreign language laboratories installed last year in three high schools.

Westport, Connecticut—New program for evaluating the district's 289 teachers on professional competence, as well as parent, professional, and staff relations. Teachers will evaluate themselves and, in turn, be evaluated by principals.

White Plains, New York—New senior high school has six buildings on campus. "Home rooms" abolished in favor of "teacher-counselor" system. Groups of 45-55 students will have same teacher-counselor for three years. Longer school day—eight instructional periods.

Wilmington, Delaware—New large comprehensive senior high school to offer expanded program of instruction particularly in modern languages, industrial arts, and business training; exploratory program in psychiatric nursing and rehabilitation to be added to vocational high school courses in practical nursing.

CONFERENCE FOR TEACHERS OF SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS

The fifth annual General Motors Conference for High School Science and Mathematics Teachers began Monday, August 22, at General Motors Technical Center with 39 teachers from Michigan, Wisconsin, Indiana, New York, Ohio, Illinois, New Jersey and Connecticut. Thirty-three of the teachers had summer employment in 20 GM divisions and three central office staffs to give them technical information and work experience helpful in their teaching and to supplement their incomes. They were selected by the GM divisions and staffs in consultation with local school administrators. In addition, six science teachers from the Detroit Archdiocese high schools joined the conference group.

The teachers saw various laboratory experiments and engineering demonstrations illustrating mathematics and basic science applications at Research Laboratories, Engineering Staff, Manufacturing Development, GM Proving Grounds and GM Institute (Flint). General Motors executives discussed GM's personnel, educational training, public relations, scholarship and other programs aimed at

aiding or supplementing both student and teacher education.

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GROUPING PUPILS

Groupings of children in the same grade on the basis of IO, achievement tests, past records, and teacher evaluation is not new. Of several systems now in use, Good Housekeeping reports the four-track system in Washington, D.C. The four tracks are divided as follows:

Honors: For the student whose IO is at least 115, scores high in achievement tests, and is physically and emotionally able to undertake a heavy academic program. College Preparatory: A less intensive, less demanding curriculum than Honors. Key difference-whereas Honors will be material for any top university, the same does not apply to the College Preparatory group. General: A curriculum which emphasizes business and commercial courses. Basic: Remedial reading and arithmetic instruction for the very slow and the retarded student.

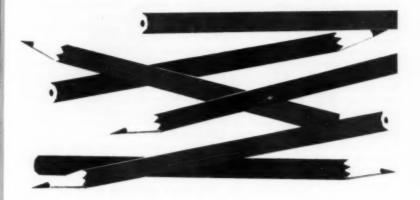
Critics of "track" schools say: Grouping is undemocratic as every child is entitled to the same education. It creates superiority and/or inferiority feelings. It pushes the smart student too fast, failing to consider if he is developing healthy social attitudes toward others.

Supporters of grouping maintain there is nothing so undemocratic as the equal treatment of unequals. They argue: Grouping enables children of varying needs and abilities to obtain the education best suited to them. Exceptional students, if not sufficiently challenged, may become bored, acquire poor work habits, and waste natural abilities. Slow learners, if frustrated and humiliated by repeated failures in classrooms with average and above-average students, may get little if any benefit from school.

PUBLICATIONS OF NEA DEPARTMENTS

Educational experts, along with outstanding authorities in other fields and disciplines, discuss the critical role of teacher-preparing institutions in the 1960 Yearbook of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE). A compilation of the major addresses of the AACTE's national convention held last February in Chicago, articles in the Yearbook give close attention not only to the "hows" and "whats" of teacher education, but, more basically, to the "whys"-objectives, trends, philosophical assumptions. Sections following the introduction and a general article on professional leadership examine recent research and other developments and their implications for teacher education. The cultural setting for teacher education is the topic of several articles, and two final sections deal primarily with AACTE organizational matters. The Yearbook, may be ordered from the Publications Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Price \$2.50.

Other NEA department publications released during the summer and fall of 1960 are as follows: Completed Research in Health, Physical Education (76 pp. \$1.50), Field Hockey: LaCrosse Guide 1960-1962 (144 pp. \$1), Soccer-Speedball Guide: Including Fieldball (128 pp. \$1), Current Administrative Problems in Athletics, Health Education, Physical Educations, and Recreation (208 pp. \$3), all four by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; and How To Use Daily Newspapers (No. 5, 7 pp. 25¢), How To Use Recordings (No. 8, 7 pp. 25¢), How To Study a Class (No. 19, 8 pp. 25e), How To Use Sociodrama (No. 20, 8 pp. 25e), all four by the National Council for the Social Studies.



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COLLEGE STUDENTS EARN AND LEARN

Northeastern University's students earned an all-time high of \$6,055,000 on cooperative work jobs during the past academic year, according to University President Asa S. Knowles. The total student earnings represents a jump of more than \$2,000,000 since the last study was made about four years ago. Overtime, bonuses, and pay for part-time work are not included in the total figure.

Northeastern "coop" students have earned some \$58,000,000 since the founding of the Cooperative Plan of Education at Northeastern, 50 years ago. Under the Cooperative Plan of Education at Northeastern, upperclass students alternate 10- and 16-week periods in the University with periods of equal length on regular paying jobs in business and industry. When the academic year 1959-60 ended on June 30, approximately 3,800 students were employed by 901 companies, extending as far north as Toronto, Canada, as far west as Chicago, Illinois, and as far south as North Carolina. "During the past year we have had virtually 100% placement of students in cooperative work jobs and there seems to be every indication this will continue," Dean Roy L. Wooldridge, Director of Cooperative Work stated.

FILMSTRIP ON CURRENT AFFAIRS

The new administration in Washington is the subject of the opening filmstrip in the 1960-61 series of the New York Times filmstrips on "Current Affairs." This timely filmstrip examines the tasks facing the new President, who assumes office at a time of grave international crisis. It ranges over the whole sphere of world issues—the challenge of the Soviet Union in the "cold war," the race for space, Missile Age defense, economic rivalry, and the many areas of tension from Cuba and divided Germany to emergent Africa and the Far East. The filmstrip also takes up the key domestic problems—inflation, civil rights, farm programs, labor, rate of economic growth, taxes, and the new President's responsibilities as architect of national policy, his relationship with Congress, and the role of the Executive Department.

The New Administration in Washington is in 53 black-and-white frames, for 35-mm projectors, with graphic current and historical photographs, cartoons, maps, and charts. Accompanying the filmstrip is a discussion manual that reproduces each frame and adds below it supplementary information for each frame. The manual also has a general introduction to the subject, discussion questions related to sections of the filmstrip, suggested activities, and suggested reading. The entire series (8 per series, October through May) is available for \$15; individual filmstrips cost \$2.50 each. They are available from the Office of Educational Activities, The New York Times, 229 West 43rd Street, New

York 36, New York.

FOUR-YEAR AIR FORCE ROTC DUTY

A four-year active duty tour for non-flying Air Force ROTC graduates will be required for students entering advanced training after January 1, 1961. The previous requirement was three years. The announcement of the change has been made in letters from Air Force Secretary Dudley Sharp to college presidents concerned. The reason for the change, according to the Air Force, is the large turnover occasioned by the relatively short tour for the non-flying officer which does not allow sufficient time for him to become proficient in his duties.—Higher Education and National Affairs, American Council on Education



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FOOTBALL AND YOUTH

Throughout the country, boys are playing organized football at a younger and younger age. Insurance records show that a boy under 16, competing in football, is five times as likely to be injured as an 18 year old. Fractures at this age can leave serious bone deformities. This absorbing information is revealed in the *Good Housekeeping* article, Can Junior Football Hurt Your Son?

Some schools claim they have permitted junior football in order to combat community-run sports programs aimed at boys as young as eight and nine. Several of these programs are shrewd schemes to provide jobs for the promoters, and sell athletic equipment. To appeal to these youths, the schools have entered the lower grades with the same sports—including football. However, a large number of these schools have used these youngsters just as shamelessly as the commercial promoters to satisfy town pride, provide entertainment, or advertise merchants' wares.

Proponents of Junior football argue that danger is minimized when adequate medical supervision exists. However, below the high school level, medical supervision is woefully inadequate. The same applies to proper equipment, an absolute must in conducting a safe football program. Few, if any teams, can afford the \$100 it takes to equip a player safely. The hard, poorly grassed, or stony fields many of these young teams must use are also hazardous as evidenced by the deaths reported last year which had the notation, "Hit head on ground." Educationally, there is also a danger. Some junior-highs are allowing athletics to cut heavily into school time. Pep rallies, early dismissals, and other frenzied hoopla make a shambles of the school day.

WORK CAPACITY WITH NO BREAKFAST AND A MID-MORNING BREAK

An experiment involving twenty subjects, ten men and ten women, was done to study the effect of the commonly practiced mid-morning break on the capacity of industrial workers to perform work. A laboratory was set up in an industrial plant to make the experimental situation as real as possible. Data were collected over a period of almost two years and involved a study of the effect of omitting breakfast on capacity to do work, and also the effect of the inclusion of the mid-morning break when an adequate breakfast was eaten, as well as when it was omitted. The data seem to justify the following conclusions:

All subjects did significantly more work when the dietary regimen included an adequate breakfast than when it was omitted.

The addition of a mid-morning break when an adequate breakfast was eaten resulted in no advantage as far as maximum work output was concerned.

The addition of a mid-morning break to a dietary regimen which omitted breakfast showed a significant advantage for half of the subjects, in maximum work output.

The data seem to indicate that an adequate breakfast is better economy as far as capacity to do work is concerned than the substitution of a mid-morning break for breakfast.—Journal of The American Dietetic Association, August 1960

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WINNING PHOTOGRAPHS AVAILABLE TO SCHOOLS

A "traveling salon" exhibit of 1960 Scholastic-Ansco award winning photographs is now available without charge to schools and libraries which request it. This salon is a portable exhibit consisting of 25 black-and-white photographs and 9 color transparencies which can be displayed in classrooms, school auditoriums, and public and school libraries. Black-and-white pictures are mounted on 16×20 inch cardboard suitable for bulletin boards. Each picture includes the name and school of the winning student, camera speed, and judges' comments on top winners.

Teenage camera enthusiasts from schools in all parts of the country submitted more than 35,000 entries in this national contest co-sponsored by Scholastic Magazines and Ansco, with supplementary awards by Sylvania Electric Company. Winning regional entries were sent to New York for final judg-

ing by a panel of newspaper and magazine photographers and editors.

The exhibit is available, without charge, for two weeks to each sponsoring school or library. Since it is now booked through November, teachers are asked to specify several alternate months for possible display dates. For reservations write: Photography Editor, Scholastic Magazines, 33 West 42nd Street, New York 36. New York.

LETTERS

Ties are easily broken between pupils and the schools from which they are graduated. But John A. Ferguson, principal of Sinclair Junior High School in Englewood, Colorado, makes sure his graduates remember their school. Whenever they receive some honor, he writes them a personal letter complimenting them on their achievement and points out that that honor "is a result of good

teachers, good parents, and good schools."

Letters to parents are not uncommon, but Missoula County (Montana) High School has a particularly good idea. New parents moving into the school community get a letter from the principal offering to answer any questions they might have about the educational system. The letter tells whom to contact and the appropriate telephone numbers. The letter ends by stating that "success in life is closely related to the amount of education the individual has attained" and that the parents play a vital role in that education. It suggests that they can help by attending local PTA meetings and lists the meeting dates.

High-school graduates in Manhasset, New York, who have gone on to college are invited each year to revisit their school so students in citizenship education

can ask them questions about how to prepare for college.

In a Connecticut school, substitute teachers are invited to attend at least one of the regular staff meetings held during the fall months. They're given a tour of the building and get a chance to exchange ideas and learn about the particular school's program.—It Starts in the Classroom, NEA

WORKSHOPS FOR MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

Workshops for modern foreign language teachers were held in eight centers in the state of Vermont during late September and the month of October in order to help teachers become acquainted with the latest developments in the field of modern foreign languages. These meetings began at 5 o'clock with a dinner period from 6:00 to 7:00. Meetings ended at 9:00 P.M. promptly.



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Private school teachers of modern foreign languages were welcomed and were

strongly urged to attend these workshops.

Because of the increasing use of tape recorders by many schools and others who are interested in learning more about this new type of equipment, the use of the tape recorder was demonstrated at these meetings. This included manipulation, splicing of tape, and the preparation of a script. Teachers brought their own tape recorder and a blank tape to practice on their own machine.

YEAR-ROUND SCHOOL

In most homes, the first day of school is a gladsome event—if only for the fact that the parent no longer hears that bored end-of-summer wail from the youngsters that "there's nothing to do around here." If you have ever wished that school "kept year-round," you'll be interested to know that many educators are considering this problem very seriously—not just to convenience hard-pressed parents, of course, but for at least three major reasons. First is the fact that school facilities in many communities stand idle for three months every year. Second is that topnotch teachers in many places are forced to spend their "vacations" working as clerks, counselors, or filling station attendants to stretch out their nine-month teaching pay. And the third is that today's youngsters need all the time possible in school to absorb the growing body of knowledge.

The American Association of School Administrators (NEA) has just published a book on year-round school plans which would make better use of school facilities and teachers. They favor most the expanded voluntary summer school program—but not just for slow students to catch up or make up courses. In the enriched summer school, gifted children could take advanced courses in chemistry, physics, mathematics, creative writing, and painting. Other students could use the time for courses that don't fit handily into the regular school program such as personal typing, nature study, woodworking,

music, crafts, or shorthand.

The school administrators are not so enthusiastic about the so-called "fourquarter plan" where 75 per cent of the students are in school at any time of the year, with the other 25 per cent on vacation. Nor do they regard too highly the 48-week school year with one month for vacation.

ONE FOURTH OF A NATION

One fourth of a nation seeks education. That's a proud statistic for America—but also a sobering one. A whopping 48 million young people—one-quarter of America's entire population—will be answering roll call this year in the country's schools and colleges. This is two million more than last year—and adds up to a million-dollar headache for the hard-pressed school administrator.

For one thing, it's hard to find the instructors for these masses of students. The National Education Association estimates that there will be a shortage of 135,000 qualified teachers for the country's public elementary and high schools. This figure does not, of course, reflect the situation in parochial and private schools where enrollments are growing even faster than in the public schools.

Classrooms are in short supply. The official figures of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare estimate the shortage at 132,400.

The double session—and even the triple session—is still with us as a result of teacher and classroom shortages. The NEA says that one third of a million elementary-school youngsters are restricted to half-day sessions; similarly a quarter of a million high-school youngsters will be forced on part time.

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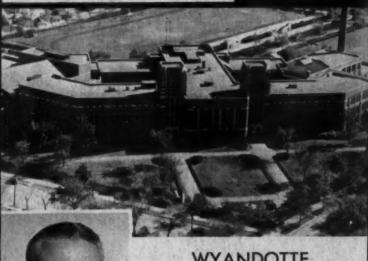
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